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REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL.

GOSSIP ABOUT GREECE.

BY J. P. MAHAFFY, M. A.
Of Dublin University.

VII.

THE PRESENT CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF GREECE.

The contemporary history of Greece may fairly be said to commence with the coronation of the present king in 1863. What we have to consider in this article is the progress of Greece during the twenty-five years that have since intervened. We may conclude with some forecast of what will happen, drawn from the consideration of what has hitherto been attained.

King George came to the throne, as we have seen, with a distracted and disorderly people, an empty treasury, and a staff of local politicians who had a bad name, and had grown up on bad traditions. He was not permitted to have any foreign advisers or ministers. Lastly, the serious insurrections and wars that have since taken place, in various parts of Turkey, and the persistent uncertainty concerning what is called the Eastern Question, have disturbed the peace of the nation, caused wild hopes and expensive armaments, and turned men away from peaceful industry to wild schemes and desperate ventures.

Yet with all these difficulties, and in spite of all these obstacles, Greece is distinctly advancing. Any one who visits that country at intervals, as I do, cannot but be struck with the improvements each year brings with it. In the first place the dynasty was enriched by the cession of the Ionian Islands, where England had endeavored to maintain a protectorate together with the permission of a national parliament. It was the fashion for the French to say that our rule there was a tyranny. The fact was that both public press and debates were allowed such license as to make them the organs of rebellion, carried on by unblushing falsehoods and constant accusations against England. There were difficulties about property very similar to those which distract Ireland. Old Venetian families had received grants of land in which they were maintained by England, as Venice had formerly been acknowledged sovereign of the island for generations. The native Greeks inveighed against the exactions of these landlords, and agitated for a change in the land laws, preparatory to confiscation of all this property. Whatever rich Greeks had acquired estates were

classed, of course, not with the natives but with the foreigners. Whenever the English power punished flagrant violations of the law, it was supposed to be in consequence of some dark policy. I need not pursue the parallel.

Owing to the influence of Mr. Gladstone, the islands became part of the kingdom of Greece. Most of the improvements made by England have been allowed to decay; the shop-keeping classes lament daily the departure of their rich customers. But the body of the people in Corfu, Zante, and the other islands never seemed to me to regret the change. It gave the tenants quite a new force in the struggle against the landlords. The new government was obliged to make them concession after concession. When I was last in Greece (1884) the landlords had not yet actually been dispossessed, but it seemed not very far off. Still these rich and important islands added considerably to the revenue and the population of Greece.

The next step in advance was the abolition of the paid senate, or upper chamber, in 1865. This is hardly to be regretted. A second chamber is thought a great safeguard of any constitution on account of the example of the English House of Peers. But these almost exclusively hereditary grandees with their great traditions and large fortunes are a very different thing from the shabby Greek senator, who probably thought more about his salary of £150 than about any public questions. In former years this senate had been the mere tool of King Otho. I do not know how far the American Senate has proved an important check upon precipitate movements; but, again, America is a huge and rich country, with a great aristocracy of wealth, which prevents us from drawing any parallel.

More questionable is it that the parliament consists of so many members—one for every ten thousand of the population. Seeing that they are all paid salaries (I believe about £80 yearly) this is a considerable expense, and makes the profession of politics much larger than it should be. It is the object of every ambitious youth in the provinces to get himself sent up with a salary to stay six months at Athens, with his further chance of office, or of making money by indirect means. Indeed the danger is not that the number of

places will be diminished, but that they will be increased.

This heavy expense is paralleled by another, in regard to which I may not so easily be able to persuade the American reader. I mean the heavy burden of supporting a married clergy. In rich countries like England and America it is easy to find salaries for the clergy which will keep them and their families in comfort; but in a country like Greece, the clergy become mere paupers, without education, eking out their scanty pay by any kind of labor, and so losing all position and influence among their people. They mumble through services which they do not understand, to people who come to hear them as mere enchantments. So the church of Greece, as a parochial system, is practically dead, and costs far more than the system which appoints a celibate *curé* to the charge of a village, whose modest wants are easily satisfied; for he is not distracted by want and care at home from attending to the moral training of his people.

The attempted enlargement of the kingdom by means of a revolution in Candia (Crete), which had remained part of the Turkish dominion, was one of those constant disturbances which cost money and life, and spread violence and disorder far beyond the immediate scene of the war. This agitation began in 1866; it was fomented by every Greek patriot; and it resulted not only in a bloody re-conquest by the Turks, but in flooding Greece with returning adventurers and homeless Cretans who revived the brigandage which was slowly being stamped out. The climax of the unfortunate backward step was the disaster to a company of distinguished English and Italian travelers who were seized on the way to Marathon (within ten miles of Athens), a certain number retained as hostages to secure an immense ransom, and when the negotiations were delayed, and a military pursuit was organized, these gentlemen were murdered by the bandits, who were hard pressed by the troops. This crime became noised over the world, owing to the social position of the victims, and to the strong representations made by the English government. It has earned to unfortunate Greece the reputation of keeping brigands up to the present day, though it happened eighteen years ago, though all the culprits were ultimately taken and executed—I saw the last of them in their condemned cells in 1873—and though no act of the kind has been reported since on Greek territory.

I will not deny that whenever a war agitation takes place, as has since been twice the case on the northern frontier, there are likely to be acts of rapine and murder about the frontier. But I must clearly express my distinct and repeated experience in 1875, 1878, 1884, that every part of the country, even the wildest, which is not actual frontier, is perfectly safe. In the wild regions about Mt. Parnassus, in the equally wild Alps of Arcadia and Laconia, I have gone by day and night, without arms, without escort, and found everywhere peace and industry. There were no military patrols, there was one policeman in each village recognizable by the kurbash, or dog whip, which is the Turkish emblem of that office.³ It is only necessary to add, that I am no foolhardy person, with any desire for adventure, and that I acted throughout with the sanction of the English minister, and the Greek "home secretary" at Athens. This question of brigandage I regard as practically settled, just as it has been in Italy by the vigor of King Victor Emanuel. There may be isolated outbreaks anywhere, as in the Ireland of to-day, where certain classes are in danger, and where people take the law into their own hands. But as in Ireland every traveler has been perfectly safe within the memory of any living man, so I affirm that both Italy and Greece have been, since I began to travel through them.

Any isolated or peculiar outbreak is perfectly known to the authorities at once, and the traveler will get due notice, if he tells to the nearest police officer his intended route.

These things ought to be known, for there is no part of Europe more delightful as a spring or winter resort. With the variety of Alps and plains, it is possible indeed to find a temperate climate in Greece all the year round, and one cannot but regret that when the English were masters of the political situation in 1815, they did not occupy both the Morea and Sicily, which with some care in the way of building roads and providing decent inns, would have become far the best health resorts in Europe. This possibility now again comes before us, since railroads and steamers have brought Greece as near to us as Algiers, and since the steady influence of M. Tricoupi, the present prime minister, is spreading roads and railways over the country. We still require proper inns, and these should be organized and controlled, I think, at first by the state. For apart from health resorts, the number of tourists to Greece is increasing yearly. The day is gone by when great scholars like Grote and Thirlwall could write the history of the country without ever thinking of going to visit it. Even the modest Dean of Oxford and Cambridge, who only teaches Greek to undergraduates, thinks himself incomplete, if he has not at least made a scamper to Athens and back. This, therefore, is becoming a distinct source of wealth to Greece, as it has been to Switzerland and Italy, and must be protected and encouraged by insisting upon security and providing comfort.

A great aid in this direction is the last cession of new territory by Turkey in 1881, so that not only is the rich plain of Thessaly now part of Greece, but the frontier, which is always the place of danger and trouble, has been moved back a long way farther from Athens. The Greeks were very anxious at the time to secure the province of Epirus also, especially Janina, which, though really Albanian country, was made pleasant to Greeks, and became their favorite resort and place of education when old Ali Pasha, who ruled that province, was preparing that revolt against his master the sultan (in 1816), which was one of the promoting causes of the liberation of Greece. Still they have gained the revenues of another rich province and five hundred thousand people of additional population.

I think even the financial difficulties would have been in a fair way of settlement, but for the foolish conduct of the ministry of 1885, who armed for a new war with Turkey, and when all their money was spent, were coerced to keep quiet by the voice of Europe. Since that time, the good sense and influence of M. Tricoupi has been gradually mending this money disaster, and if he is allowed to hold office for some years, there will be quite a new state of things in the country. For hitherto, owing to the imperfect knowledge of parliamentary habits, and owing to the sordid greed of many needy men who only pursue politics for the sake of the salaries of office, it has been the habit of all the smaller factions or cabals to join against the ministry, and so upset the existing government. When this happens there is not one consolidated opposition, led by responsible men, who have given pledges to the country, to take up the reins of office—that solid and serious body which Lord Beaconsfield called "Her Majesty's opposition"; all the factions begin to quarrel for the spoils of office, and set upon the new ministry as vigorously as they attacked the last. Changes of ministry were so frequent that we lost count of them. It is only since M. Tricoupi rose to importance, a man of high education, and long residence in Western Europe, that a change for the better is taking place. Ministries, at least his ministry, are beginning to last, and

we may hope that soon Greece will be able to show a good example to France in this respect. The result of what I have been saying is this, that in a country where the opposition is not loyally organized upon public lines, but is merely factions, the government is sure to be weak and constantly changing. But if the public action is thus weak, the individual influence of the M. P. and of the *demarch*,⁴ a local prefect, in their constituency is far too great. Every kind of pressure is brought to bear on the electors to support the sitting member; justice in the local courts is often perverted, or is supposed to be perverted, in order to punish those who vote against him, or screen those who support him. The collecting of the local taxes, which is still on a very unsatisfactory basis, is done by local tax farmers who are not above suspicion. The country people are now peaceable and passive; they merely object to any new methods of farming, and they dread offending *demarchs* or deputies, as of old they dreaded offending Turkish *cadis* and *pashas*. And indeed the conduct of the local magistrates in Greece is said to be not very different from that of their predecessors. Roads and railways, more traveling, quicker communication—in fact the breaking down of the isolation and secrecy of Greek country life—will in time remedy these evils. But these things require time, and still more steady continuance, without those disastrous agitations about the Eastern Question, which unsettle everything, and undo past work.

American readers will be surprised that I have not put in the forefront the other great modern engine of improvement—school education. The reason I have to give is that I think the Greeks decidedly over-educated in the way of books and "faculties" and university degrees. I have never been able to satisfy myself as to the standard of the national university, which gives education actually free. To ascertain the standard one should not only study the examination papers, but the answering of average candidates in their actual trial, and so learn what it really means to pass a Degree Examination at Athens. But whatever it means, this is certain, that setting up young and ambitious paupers with university degrees and allowing them to attempt learned professions, takes them out of their proper sphere, and while it fills the capital with a discontented and hungry mob of place seekers, leaves the fields badly cultivated for want of labor. Education in farming is sorely needed, above all, education in the dignity of agriculture. But education in books and in the arts of political intrigue is unfortunately too widely spread, and is doing more harm than good.⁵

It only remains for us to make a few guesses as to the future fortunes of Greece. Political prophecies are notoriously uncertain, but, nevertheless, they are amusing, and tend

to bring our knowledge to a focus, to see what effects are likely to follow from causes which have other prototypes, with their result already recorded in history. The course of events which I have traced in these papers shows that Greece is likely to increase. There is more intelligence and enterprise in that kingdom than in any other about the Levant, and the fact that the trade is in their hands, and that there are people of Greek blood and language inhabiting all the Eastern coasts and islands, points to an extension, certainly to the remaining islands, possibly to the coast of Asia Minor.

But this is not the main ambition of the Greeks. Supposing that Turkey really falls to pieces, or is driven out of Europe, the real question of moment is the fate of Constantinople. It has been hitherto the fixed policy of Europe to prevent Russia from occupying it; there is no respectable head power nearer than Austria; why should not the city become the new capital of a revived Byzantine kingdom, and why should not the Greeks hold the straits as a kind of central power in the joint interests of Europe? There is a sentimental aspiration, too, in restoring the great cathedral of St. Sophia⁶ to its primitive glory, as the metropolitan church of Greek Christianity.

But in order to realize them, we must expect some further guarantees of order and good government than have yet been afforded by the new kingdom. We must see greater earnestness about paying their state obligations. They must learn that a public debt, though the money may have fallen into bad hands and been squandered, is still a debt of honor, and that the wealth of the creditors is no reason why they should forego their claims. But Greece is not the only country where this doctrine is assumed to be moral.

In the next place, the Greeks must show some larger capacity for creating an efficient navy. Their land force cannot be very imposing, and an acute German critic has observed that the total want of sympathy for all the lower animals makes the Greek cavalry soldier peculiarly inefficient. But there is no reason why the Greeks, who are excellent sailors, and not wanting in scientific ability, should not possess a really efficient fleet, and this would be a *sine qua non* for the possessors of Constantinople and the patrolling force of the Levant. Lastly, increasing power and accumulating traditions of a modern type may give that national dignity which produces calmness and self-command. Vanity and "touchiness" are almost inseparable from a nation which combines great intelligence with a second-rate position. But it is not the glories of their ancestors, on which they have so long traded, but their own solid merits which will acquire for the Greeks the high position to which they fairly aspire in Eastern Europe.

(The end.)

AGESILAUS.

BY THOMAS D. SEYMOUR, M. A.
Of Yale University.

GREEK BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES. VII.

In the previous sketches I have chosen Athenians as typical representatives of Greece. Since the time of Solon, the history of Greece has been essentially the history of Athens. But Athens was not Greece after all, and just before the death of Alcibiades, she had been compelled to surrender the leadership to her mighty rival. Sparta was not merely her rival, she was her opposite. The Athenians were light-minded. The Spartans were heavy-minded. They never wanted to move without a precedent; they were conservative to the core.

The Athenians were ready for any emergency, and fond of novelty. They welcomed foreigners from all lands. Their legislation favored commerce. Their coinage was made acceptable to the commercial world. They were ever ready for trade or adventure. The Spartans were a nation of warriors; they kept foreigners at a distance—in fact, expelled them from the country; they repressed trade, allowed no coined gold or silver in the land, sent out no colonies, and had few foreign relations.

The Athenians could fight, if necessary but (like the Ameri-

cans) they preferred to invent. They were devoted to philosophy, oratory, poetry, and art. But who can name a Spartan sculptor, architect, philosopher, orator, or dramatic poet? Lyric poetry was the one branch of literature which was cultivated there. Their choruses were admired, but the three great lyric poets of Sparta were imported from other countries, not "town-born."

Our modern culture comes from Athens. Athens is the source of our intellectual life, while few elements of modern civilization can be traced to Sparta. We Americans are in many respects strikingly like the Athenians, and have little in common with the Spartans. The Athenian qualities, then, are what we naturally best appreciate and warmly admire, while for the most part we can pass lightly over their faults. An ancient Athenian would be entirely at home in one of our cities (though he might not approve of all of our architecture), as soon as he had learned a little of our language, while an old Spartan would be absolutely helpless and wretched in the midst of modern life.

The Athenian government was a rampant democracy; the Spartan government was a conservative oligarchy, with its powers hedged in on every side. The individual was the unit at Athens; at Sparta, the interests of the state (at least in theory) were paramount, the individual's preferences were hardly consulted. The Athenian masses had no high regard for law and political constitution. Solon and Aristides had introduced changes in the constitution; why should not Cleon and Theramenes?

The Spartans, on the other hand, entertained a high respect for precedents. Only a few enjoyed the rights of citizenship, and these rights depended on the maintenance of the constitution.

Yet though the Spartans were so unlike ourselves in many ways, and though we cannot trace to them our modern life, we must admire them. "Spartan courage" and "Spartan endurance" have become proverbial. Their discipline was superb.

"Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die."

The spirit of obedience and self-restraint was developed in them as in few other nations of men.

The subject of this sketch was a Spartan king, and we cannot understand his life without understanding also his surroundings—his "environment."

Perhaps some of us think of Sparta and Lacedæmon as identical, but Sparta was a collection of five villages in which the Spartans, or "Spartiates," lived. The other inhabitants of Lacedæmon had no political rights and were constantly reminded of their inferiority. The number of Spartans was not large, probably never more than six thousand men, and at the close of the Peloponnesian War, just before 400 B. C., this number was greatly reduced, and less than a hundred years later only one thousand Spartan citizens remained. Constant wars had broken up family life and almost annihilated the state, in spite of the rewards and immunities which were offered to the parents of three or more sons.

The soil of Lacedæmon is much more fertile than that of Attica. It produces oranges, figs, mulberries, and grapes, with great luxuriance. The country is walled in by mountains, but the plain itself is hospitable. To each Spartan family was assigned a lot of land (perhaps about forty acres) which was cultivated by *helots*, or serfs. The Spartan himself took no care of the land, nor was he allowed to engage in manufacture or trade. He was not even permitted to have gold or silver in his possession. No silver was coined in the country until after the time of Alexander the Great. Their trade must have consisted largely in barter. Their only money

was bars of iron. But what need had they of money? They were soldiers in camp. Their rations were provided (by the *helots*). Their dress was simple, generally but one single garment for the year. Their homes were rude and unadorned. No tools but ax and saw were used in fashioning the timbers of the roof and the door. The lawgiver (whoever he was) desired that the citizens of the state should feel the difference between rich and poor no more than soldiers in an army. He hoped that they might have "neither poverty nor riches."

When a boy was born, the officers of the state decided whether he should be reared. If the infant was deformed, or seemed thoroughly puny, it was exposed on the mountains and left to die.

From the boy's seventh year, he was under the care of the state, and was trained to ready obedience and to quickness, strength, and endurance of body. All were subjected to the same discipline, or excluded from the rights of Spartan citizenship. They received no mental training of any account. Probably few of them were taught to read and write. At the age of twenty, the youth was enrolled in the army. Most of his time was spent in exercise. At the age of thirty, the young Spartan received full political rights, but the military system was continued. The rights of citizenship were forfeited if he did not maintain his relation to his "mess" and public life, just as they were if he had not received the public training. All dined in messes, about fifteen in each. Even the kings were expected, though not required, to dine at the public table. Each Spartan contributed monthly to the mess about two bushels of barley meal, eight gallons of wine, ten pounds of cheese, five pounds of figs, and fifty cents to buy pork for soup-meat.

The diet was prevailingly vegetable, but sometimes they secured game from the chase.

Sparta had a double kingship. These two kings had more honors than authority, except in military campaigns, where they were commanders-in-chief and had almost unlimited power. The council was composed of twenty-eight senators, more than sixty years of age, chosen for life and unaccountable to man, like the members of the Areopagus at Athens. They had the initiative in all public business. Five *ephors* (overseers), chosen from all the Spartans, had great power and important executive and judicial functions, but they held office only for one year, and were strictly accountable for all their official acts. The *ephors* formed a democratic element in the government, which was thus a compound of monarchy, oligarchy, and democracy. This constitution endured with slight changes for five hundred years. The Spartans had no public treasury, no cavalry, and only an insignificant fleet.

Agesilaus was the younger son of King Archidamus. He was of insignificant appearance, and slightly lame, but he gave himself with energy to the gymnastic exercises of the country, and soon excelled in them. Being a younger son, he received no special attention, but was subjected to the ordinary training of the Spartan boys. On the death of Agis, however, in 399 B. C., Agesilaus, then about forty years of age, was called to succeed his brother on the throne which he was to hold for forty years.

At that time, Sparta was the undisputed mistress of Greece. Her day of magnificence and prosperity seemed to have come. But her land was rent with internal conflicts. Those inhabitants who were excluded from all civil rights but who had been obliged to work for the maintenance of the Spartans—the people who had been obliged to serve in Sparta's armies but who were not allowed to enjoy the fruits of her victories—these were on the point of insurrection and revolt.

Another danger suddenly threatened Sparta from without. After the battles of Salamis and Plataea, the Persians had been for the most part entirely willing to remain at home and live at peace with Greece. But now the Persian king was reported to be preparing an expedition against Greece. His dreaded enemy, Athens, was now helpless. Agesilaus determined at once to avoid the invasion by carrying the war into the enemy's country. The "Anabasis" of Cyrus and his ten thousand Greek mercenaries had shown the hollowness and impotence of the Persian kingdom. Agesilaus asked to be appointed to conduct the war; he required only thirty Spartans, two thousand liberated helots, and six thousand allies. He hoped to rouse the national spirit of the Greeks, but he was too late. He set out in romantic fashion, from the same port from which Agamemnon had led his forces against Troy. The Persian satraps in Asia Minor were on bad terms with each other, and made the achievement of his purposes more easy. The satrap Tissaphernes, whom all readers of the "Anabasis" will remember, in dismay at his approach, pretended that the Persian king would yield the freedom of the Greek cities in Asia, but asked for a truce of three months until he should receive instructions from Babylon. He really sent, however, for reinforcements for his army, and on their arrival told Agesilaus to leave the country at once. But the Spartan made preparations for the invasion of Caria. Only, when the barbarian forces were gathered there, he turned about and entered Phrygia, and the Greeks gathered spoils of war to their heart's content. Then he gave orders for the invasion of Lydia. The Persians thought that this time he would really go against Caria, but he went against Lydia, as he had said that he would, and found it undefended. He showed the barbarians to be mere children in strategy. He fought with them as a skilled boxer would contend with an ordinary man.

He continued the simplicity of his Spartan life in the midst of the wealth and luxury of Asia Minor, while his friends and followers were enriched. He was idolized by his army, and he gained the entire confidence of the Greek cities of the country, and the nations of the neighboring inland. He had been in Asia for two years and he was preparing for an expedition against Babylon itself, hoping to follow in the footsteps of Cyrus, and have a yet more prosperous end to the undertaking—to do what Alexander the Great did seventy years later—when a message came from Sparta recalling him from the scene of his successes already gained, and from the greater glory for which he hoped. The temptation to disobey orders was tremendously strong. But Sparta was in danger, and Agesilaus obeyed the summons to come to her assistance, still cherishing the hope that he might return to Asia and carry out his plans there. He was never to fulfill that hope, however. Sparta had made herself hateful to her allies and the other Greeks, and after ten years of leadership she was in greater danger than ever before. The return of Agesilaus with his brilliant generalship and Hellenic patriotism saved Sparta then and gave her still greater power for a time. No other Spartan leader seems to have formed the conception of the Greeks united not as subjects but as fellow-countrymen. The Spartan contempt for the other inhabitants of Lacedæmon, Greeks though they all were, favored a similar contempt for the Athenians and the Thebans.

On the march back to Sparta, Agesilaus overcame varied

obstacles, put in his way by unfriendly nations, and weakened Thebes which was already becoming the most dangerous rival of his country. But before he arrived at home, the news reached him of the defeat of the fleet which he had collected on the coast of Asia, and he must have felt that his plans for the overthrow of the Persian power must be left to another generation, although he did not cease to mourn that the Greeks should be fighting against each other for the possession of trifles while they might so easily make themselves masters of the wealth of Asia.

Agesilaus found little peaceful quiet in Greece. That was a time of factions and intrigues in all Greece, as during the former generation in Athens. Few allies or alliances could be trusted. Wars were frequent. Athens was no longer a dead lion. She, too, was regaining strength with wonderful recuperative power.

For the war with Thebes in 371 B. C., Agesilaus is fairly accountable. It was the great error of his life. In July of that year the Spartan forces were routed by the Thebans at the battle of Leuctra. Sparta had given the Thebans many lessons in fighting, by which they had profited, and the Theban Epaminondas had studied also all the military innovations of the Athenians. The result of the battle astonished the Greeks. No battle between Greek nations was ever more decisive or far-reaching in its results. The leadership passed from the hands of Sparta, and consternation and horror prevailed there. The parents of the slain were joyous; the friends of the living were covered with grief and shame. That Spartans should flee from the field of battle was a sad blow to their pride. But the number of those who had fled was so large that they could not be safely disfranchised, according to the law. Agesilaus said that "the law must sleep."

Epaminondas came into Lacedæmon with an army of forty thousand men. Never since the Spartans had lived there, for more than six hundred years, had a hostile army appeared within sight of Sparta. They had boasted that no enemies lay buried in Lacedæmon, that they had pursued no foes from the valley of the Eurotas.

If Agesilaus was responsible for the war, and thus for the disaster, he deserves the credit also for the safety of the city on two invasions. He directed the execution of all measures of safety, and preserved the country.

Ten years later, when Agesilaus was more than eighty years old, he was sent to Egypt, to the aid of an insurgent prince. On his arrival, the Egyptians treated his coming as a joke. Of what worth was this little insignificant-looking old man? He made his influence felt, however, until his death there, after a reign of forty years, 358 B. C.

Agesilaus was one of the most attractive of all the Spartan kings. He was one of the most enlightened and unselfish of the number. He had a lovable character and was ready to do perhaps too much for his friends. He was in advance of his time in his plan for the invasion of Persia; while he had more of the spirit of the earlier generation who repelled Xerxes than any other Spartan of his day. If he had not been recalled from Asia by the internal strife of Greece, which had been largely fomented by Persian gold, Sparta, and not Macedonia, would have undertaken the conquest of the East, Agesilaus, and not Alexander, would have overthrown the Persian Empire.

GREEK ART.

BY CLARENCE COOK.

III. PAINTING.

Greek painting exists only in the gallery of the imagination. From what remains of the Greek temples, and theaters and porticoes, we can, aided by the books, re-create the architecture with some approach to certainty. The remains of her sculpture are sufficient, even supposing all we have to be but copies, to give us a lively sense of what that sculpture must have been. But of Greek painting in its perfection, nothing whatever remains, and even the scraps of this art as it existed in a later, debased period in Lower Italy, give us only the dimmest notion of what the art provided for the mass of the people in the days when Greeks painted for Greeks in Greece.

Of the beginnings of painting, whether in Asia Minor or in Greece proper, we know as little as we do of the art in its more advanced stages; and here even the books give us no help, since they are all written long after the events, and content themselves with repeating old legends and stories for lack of trusty records. Homer hardly alludes to painting; the ornaments of his palaces seem to have been chiefly furniture and utensils with, as we have seen, brazen or golden figures as torch-bearers or supports for various objects. It seems hardly possible, if in Homer's time, painting had played considerable part in the adornment of the dwelling, or of the temple, that he should not have alluded to it. But the only reference he makes to painting is as decoration; he speaks of the black ships, of the red-cheeked ships, and of an ivory ornament for the harness of a horse, stained with purple by a Mæonian or a Carian damsel. It would appear, not only from this allusion of Homer, but from the testimony of the vases, that women were employed in these arts. One of the vases shows the interior of a vase-manufactory where four persons, one of them a woman, are engaged in painting vases of different well-known forms.

Another reason for supposing that painting proper, employed for the decoration of rooms, was not in use in Homer's time lies in the fact that he delights so much in color, continually referring to it not only in speaking of things—such as clothing and personal ornaments, cloaks, rugs, and mantles, arms, armor, and furniture—where to his mind color seems to make an essential part of the beauty and richness of the thing described, but even blood is always purple or dark, the water is black or purple, the morning sky is rosy, the Greeks are dark-eyed—so that, if there had been pictures with rich or varied colors he certainly would have described them.

The painting of vases, even of those produced in the latest times, has no particular relation to painting proper, where the use of color, applied not merely as ornament but to distinguish objects and textures, and to be distributed in such a way as to give pleasure in itself, is essential to the definition. The Greeks were for a long time satisfied with modeling figures in clay, and decorating them with colors in a rude and conventional style; from this they passed to images cut out of soft stone, or even marble, still retaining, and always to the end retaining, the practice of modeling and molding in clay. The next steps, perhaps, would be the painting of rude figures on tiles, as votive offerings or as trade insignia, and along with this, the decoration of pottery would be carried on. This decoration answers in its simplicity to the unstudied and rude shapes of the early pottery

often borrowed from natural forms of shells or gourds. We find spirals or concentric circles running round the vessel horizontally or placed vertically on opposite sides, with smaller circles, dots, rosettes, rudimentary flower forms, and rude figures of quadrupeds and birds, and human beings—disposed in horizontal bands—these latter, always inferior in spirit and naturalness to the mules and deer, the lions, tigers, hares, birds, and fishes—the animals most commonly met with.

From this archaic system of decoration, and these squat and ungainly forms we pass by slow stages to more symmetrical and elegant shapes, and to a richer and more varied ornamentation, where, besides the beauty and the symmetry, we enjoy at the same time an intellectual pleasure derived from the almost encyclopædic record of the vases taken altogether, shedding an unexpected and welcome light on a hundred points connected with the daily life and occupations of the Greek peoples. All this is a matter of extreme interest and enjoyment, but it is not painting, and it has only this to do with painting, that we feel it must in a degree reflect and suggest what was doing in the field of actual painting in each epoch to which the vases belong. In the arts of any people left free to develop their own tastes and ideas, influenced, it may be, but not overrun, by their neighbors, there will always be found a harmony between the different arts they practice: the textile fabrics will not be much in advance of the pottery, nor will the ornamentation of the weapons of war or the hunt be to any appreciable degree, superior to the rest. Therefore we have a right to reason that if there were any painting in this early Homeric time it must have harmonized with the things actually described by the poet, and its coloring must have been of the same depth and richness which he always gives to the objects he describes.

The Greek traditions as reported by the late Roman writers ascribed to the Corinthians and Sicyonians, the first decided improvements in the art of painting. Cleanthes of Corinth appears to have given his attention to perfecting the outline of his figures, while others, Corinthian and Athenian, devoted themselves to painting in monochrome. Pliny mentions particularly the name of an Athenian, Eumarus, who was the first to distinguish in his painting between male and female figures, giving to one, brighter colors than the other. We must remember that Pliny could know of these things only by tradition. Eumarus, if he were a real person, lived in the seventh century before Christ, and Pliny in the first century after Christ; but, taking the tradition for what it is worth, and Pliny's report of it, we may still see that this is the way in which the art would develop; and it is certainly interesting to find this old leaven working, and the lovers of line, and the lovers of modeling and color, thus early separating like oil and water, just as they have been doing ever since.

No doubt, in time, as our knowledge comes to be more extended we shall trace many of the principles, practices, and discoveries which we now, following the Roman compilers, encyclopædists, and critics, attribute to the Greeks, and which the Greeks, in their time, attributed to themselves, to earlier civilizations, to the Egyptians, Assyrians, Indians, and perhaps to peoples still further east. But the glory will still rest with the Greeks—no matter what revisions of

history future discoveries may force upon us—that they threw off their swaddling clothes and went from one advance to another until they had reached the perfection that in all the arts has made them the types and standard of excellence. Yet it is doubtless true that throughout their triumphant progress, they still permitted the survival of the old, investing it with the charm of sacred mystery, and unwilling to break wholly with ancestral memories and the associations of the race.

According to all the evidence collected by the later writers, at home and in Rome, the progress made in the art of painting in all its branches was rapid, and every town of importance had its artists; the names of many of them have come down to us and a few stand out prominently from the mass, although not a single smallest trace of their actual work has descended to us, or was known to one of the writers who have recorded their fame. Almost everything that we read concerning ancient painting relates to the art as practiced by the Romans, but the Romans inherited all they knew from the Greeks. Still the tendency of the Roman writers, as of the Greek, was to exaggerate the praises of the artists who to them were ancient. The names of Polygnotus, Zeuxis, Parrhasius, Apelles, and Protogenes are those which have come down to us as the chiefs of Greek painting; but such men were only possible on the condition of a wide-spread preparation for their coming by multitudes of painters and abundant employment; and to maintain their art at a high level they must have been surrounded by an atmosphere of general talent and achievement in which alone such gifts as theirs can come to flower and fruit.

Reading about these artists without the means of judging as to the truth of the praises bestowed upon them is pleasant enough, for the imagination is left free to fill up the vacant canvas as it will; but it is of little substantial use. We are told that Polygnotus, who, though naturalized at Athens, was born at Thasos, was distinguished for the noble and clear manner in which he characterized the gods and goddesses in his painting. Aristotle calls him "the painter of noble characters." He was the first to give expression to the face and to show the open mouth with the teeth. Lucian praises the beautiful lines of the eye-brows, the soft bloom of the cheeks, the lightness and delicacy of his draperies. He was the first, says Pliny, who painted women in transparent garments. Yet, neither Lucian nor Pliny knew anything of his work except by report. His subjects were oftenest drawn from the legendary and mythological history of the Greeks, and he treated these in a serious and religious spirit; while his compositions were marked by great symmetry, and by an architectural formality in the composition. From what is said of his large pictures, with subjects drawn from epic poetry, we should imagine them the prototypes of the early Italian pictures from Giotto to Raphael,³ where the composition is almost universally arranged in a distinctly formal way, recalling the disposition of actors upon the dramatic stage. Polygnotus died, probably, about the year 426 B. C. As he was the favorite artist of Cimon, who is said to have brought him from Thasos when he conquered the island in 463 B. C., we find his principal works executed for the buildings erected by Cimon: the Temple of Theseus,⁴ the Painted Porch,⁵ and the Lesche,⁶ or Conversation-Room, at Delphi. In his pictures there would seem to have been no attempt at perspective, and as in the Greek vases, and in the tapestries of the Middle Ages, the personages were identified by their names painted next them.

Polygnotus was the contemporary of Phidias, Polycletus, and Myron, a fact which shows how far painting was behind sculpture, but this is a common experience. For reasons

not difficult to discover, sculpture seems an art more natural to man, and one in which he more easily excels.

Apollodorus, a native of Athens, has the credit of inventing light and shade, and thus advancing the art a stage beyond its attainment at the hands of Polygnotus. His contemporaries Zeuxis and Parrhasius carried it still further toward perfection. Considering his great fame, it is remarkable that we do not know the place nor the date of the birth of Zeuxis. In 420 B. C. he was practising his art with great success at Athens, whence it is concluded that he was born about 455 B. C. Anecdotes of Zeuxis abound, and they are generally of a trivial character relating to his vanity and his love of ostentation. The chroniclers dilate upon the illusion produced by his painting, but in the arts, as we have said, this quality seems to be the one that most excites the admiration of people in general. Vasari⁷ is no less fond of praising it than Pliny, and we believe it gives as much pleasure to-day as it did in the time when Zeuxis and Parrhasius had their friendly contest.⁸

Zeuxis painted with great deliberation, and once when he was reproached for this, he is said to have answered, "It is true, I take a long time to paint, but I mean my painting to last a long time." The most celebrated picture of Zeuxis was his Helen, painted for the people of Crotona. He also made a picture of Zeus on his throne surrounded by the other great gods. As a climax to the anecdotes of the realistic painting of Zeuxis, we are told that he laughed himself to death over an old woman he had painted! Zeuxis was thought by the ancients to have descended from the ethical height attained by Polygnotus; his aim was rather the perfection of form than expression of character. Yet his picture of the Centaur family⁹ derived much of its reputation from the skill with which the characters of the personages were distinguished.

To recur for a moment to Parrhasius. We may mention that the compliment paid to Rubens, that his cherubs were fed on rose-leaves, was originally paid to Parrhasius, of whose "Theseus" the same thing was said.

But the painter who, according to the testimony of his contemporaries, united in himself all the perfections of his great predecessors, was the Ionian Apelles, the friend of Alexander the Great. He painted Alexander's portrait, representing him with the thunderbolt in his hand, like another Jove, and the skillful foreshortening by which the arm seemed to stand out from the panel on which it was painted was greatly praised. Apelles was in character the opposite of Zeuxis, being distinguished for his modesty and his readiness to learn from others. It is of him that the story of the cobbler and his criticism is told. He used to expose his pictures in the street, and concealing himself would listen to the remarks of the passers-by. On one of these occasions a cobbler found fault with the shoes worn by one of the figures in a picture, and Apelles overhearing it, withdrew the picture and corrected the fault. The next day he put the picture out again, and the cobbler, emboldened by the success of his previous venture, now attacked the leg of the figure, upon which Apelles thrust out his head from his hiding-place, and exclaimed, "Cobbler, stick to your last!"

The most famous picture of Apelles was the "Venus Anadyomene," Venus rising from the sea and wringing out the hair, while the drops of water formed a veil about her body. This picture was originally painted for the temple of Æsculapius at Cos, and was afterward placed by Augustus in the temple which he dedicated to Julius Cæsar at Rome, where, however, it was in a ruinous state, even at the time of Nero. The name of Apelles early became a synonym for perfection, and among the later Latin poets was often used

as the highest praise that could be bestowed upon an artist. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, on the revival of learning, we again find it in constant use in the epitaphs of artists. On the tombstone of Fra Angelico¹⁰ we read, in Latin :

"Say not, when I am dead, that I was another Apelles ;
But, that on earth, oh Christ, I gave thy gifts to thy poor."

Later, the name of Raphael took the place of Apelles in general speech, to typify the sum of perfection ; but that of the Greek artist is still often employed.

Greek painting had a wide range, and their landscape-art must not be forgotten, though we know no more of it actually than we do of the figure-painting. The vases no doubt preserve to some extent hints of the composition of the mythological and poetic subjects, but they could do

nothing for the landscape, which in them is treated as pure symbolism. The paintings of Pompeii, while it may give us a notion of what was the tendency of ordinary decoration, is yet so late in its origin, and of so inferior workmanship that we can learn little from it. But, even were the testimony to Greek perfection in painting less full and strong than it is, we should still think ourselves justified in believing that it must have been worthy of companionship with the other productions of that subtly wedded mind and hand that built the Parthenon, and sculptured the Venus of Milo and the Hermes of Olympia ; that molded and painted the vases, engraved the gems, and embossed the coins, and that even in the fashioning of a garment showed a sensitiveness to beauty that has never before nor since been embodied on the planet.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[April 7.]

It would seem at present as if in all churches the one thing needful was no longer a steady growing from the old root of faith, that men are not applying and developing, but questioning, the heart-religion which inspired the lives of their fathers, and watched by their dying beds, and closed their eyes in peace. Christianity, it is supposed, is failing in these days, or, like some revolving light which observes no regular times, has now its dark side toward us, and we are waiting for the brighter phase which the next revolution may perhaps present. It may be doubted whether in any sect in Christendom there is at present a deep and quiet faith, untroubled by expectation or by fear.

Yet it is not at all upon its *practical* side that Christianity exhibits this questionable shape. It is not the religion of Christ, but its traditional theology, or its traditional history, that is under contention. None of us think that we have not light to walk by, but we pause in our steps to settle the theory of the light. A religion to live by,—a religion to die by,—a religion to bring God near to us in temptations, all this we have. This is a religion which there is not a church in all Christendom but believes itself to have, *as in truth it has*. Yet there is perhaps not a church in Christendom that is not looking for something more that has yet to come, and through dissatisfaction with what it is and has, is not poring over the idea that Christianity has not yet assumed a satisfying form. Now, if this was a lament over practical unfaithfulness, and its consequences to the inner light in withdrawing the secret grace of God,—that our doctrines were so much diviner than our lives that we hardly knew them to be of God because we were such feeble doers of them,—there would be both truth and hope in the lamentation ; but this is not the direction of the general discontent, nor is this the quarter to which we are looking for new light. It is the religion, not the practice of it, that is supposed to want renewing. Now we ask, whether in the things of the Spirit, new light is to pass from the doctrine to the life, or from the life to the doctrine? And, speaking within the bosom of a church which believes Christianity to be "*the Word made flesh*," "*the Father manifested in the Son*," I am bound to speak my own conviction that we have got all the light that God will ever give us except the light that comes from life, from the Word made flesh again, from the manifestations of Himself which the Father gives to those who love Him, and will to do His will. It were easy to dream of a Light that would resolve every intellectual doubt,—of a Voice pealing out of Heaven in audible words and tones that would

melt into every heart, and draw forth its captive affections to be fellow-workers with Christ in a world where Love alone was the law of being,—of a Guidance that would take us by the hand and point as with a sunbeam to the open way of peace and duty ; but it is not *thus* that the Father educates the germ of eternal life, the image of Himself, which He has planted in His children's souls. They must have life in themselves, and grow by living from the life they have. Nor is the life that is in us left to grope darkly toward its issues. In the mirror of our own nature we can behold with open face the glory of the Lord, and be changed into the same image from glory to glory.

But then, it is said, the administration of religion is so powerless among us. Alas! have we no fire of our own that will burn the poorest fuel? Are we forever to wait for the crumbs that fall from other men's tables, and complain that we are not fed?

[April 14.]

Next to our life in God, our strength depends upon the life of the AFFECTIONS: and the power of these is more in what *we feel* than in what is felt *toward us*. The warmth, indeed, that is thrown into the inner forces of our life from the warmth of others toward us is immeasurably dear and strengthening, but to make it our direct aim would be only a form of self-seeking ; it is one of the things that are "added unto us." In all things it is more blessed to give than to receive ; and even as regards those to whom we should never dream of imparting anything—rich hearts that pour their charities like a flood into our shallow sympathies—strong minds whose steady gaze at once finds out our strength and our weakness—firm hands that make light of difficulties that to us are mountains—it is, after all, not the direct aids they give us, but the genuine reverence we give them, the love and admiration we cherish for them, that make them true blessings to us. But in this matter of the Affections, it is very easy in our demands upon the Affections of others to forget the natural play and duty of our own, and unless all is given to us that we could desire, to deem that the claim upon us is proportionally lessened. It is easy to set up an ideal of the kind of sympathy we should desire, and, if that ideal is disappointed, to act as if we were discharged from the creative work of our own hearts. Yet it may be that the elements of all that we desire are actually present with us, if only we would spend ourselves upon them. At all events, there are few cases in which our allotted work in life is so fixed as in what relates to the duties of the Affections ; and if

to desert the post of danger is the loss of honor, to turn away when the heart is appealed to is not less to be unworthy of the place where we were stationed by the God of Life and Love. What trust from God is so distinctly ours as the hearts and minds which Nature and Providence have woven in with our web of life? If anything of that inward fidelity to our own charge, which is ever the deepest witness to the long-suffering of God, is passing from us—if any heart-trust, our directest testimony to Him who inspires the heart, is weakening and giving way—ere the bruised reed is broken, the still smoking flax of any yet living affection quenched in death and darkness, let us hear as the pleading of Him whose undeserved love toward us is ever grieved and ever patient: "Strengthen what remains, though ready to die; I have not found thy works perfect."

And, finally, if the life of the conscience, of the individual spirit, if anything is perishing there, what can we do but lay eager hold on what yet remains? If any voice of God, distinct once, has some faint whispers still—if any vision of true life, oft thrust aside, revives sometimes—if any memory of early prayers and vows starts suddenly athwart our worldliness—then to gather up the whispers of that voice, until it speaks again with the authority of Eternal Law—to detain that vision until it takes clear shape and becomes anew as Christ formed within us—to go back to those early prayers until amid earth and time we feel ourselves, as of old, God's children and care—these are the ends for which the Heavenly Grace still lingers near us, to beseech us that we turn not away and die.—*Readings from John Hamilton Thom.*

[April 21.]

[From the Latin. Daniel, II. p. 365. By W. C. J. (*Lyra Mess.*, p. 328). Mary Magdalene is here, as in the *Dies Ira* and other Latin hymns, identified with the sinful woman, Luke vii: 37. See the note in Trench, p. 159.]

Mary! put thy grief away,
And thy drooping eyelid clear:
'Tis not Simon's feast to-day,
'Tis no time to shed a tear;
There are thousand springs of joy,
Thousand springs of transport high.

Mary! learn to smile again,
Let thy beaming forehead brighten;
Far is banished every pain,
Now the Sun of suns doth lighten:
CHRIST the world from death hath freed;
Yea, the LORD is risen indeed.

Mary! leap for joy and gladness,
CHRIST hath triumphed o'er the tomb;
He hath closed the scene of sadness,
He of death hath sealed the doom;
Whom thou late in death wast mourning,
Welcome now to life returning.

Mary! lift thy trembling glance,
View Him risen with deep amaze;
See! how fair that countenance!
On those wounds resplendent gaze;
How like purest pearls they shine,
Sparkling all with life Divine!

Mary! live, yea, live again,
Now thy light again hath shone;
Transport swell through every vein,
Now the sting of death has gone:
Far away be gloom and sadness,
All once more be joy and gladness.

[Another and better version of this sweet and cheering Easter Hymn, by the Rev. Dr. E. A. Washburn, New York, June 1868. Contributed.]

Still thy sorrow, Magdalena!
Wipe the tear-drops from thine eyes;
Not at Simon's board thou kneelest,
Pouring thy repentant sighs:
All with thy glad heart rejoices;
All things sing with happy voices,
Hallelujah!

Laugh with rapture, Magdalena!
Be thy drooping forehead bright;
Banished now is every anguish,
Breaks anew thy morning light:
Christ from death the world hath freed;
He is risen, is risen indeed:
Hallelujah!

Joy! exult, O Magdalena!
He hath burst the rocky prison;
Ended are the days of darkness;
Conqueror hath He arisen.
Mourn no more the Christ departed;
Run to welcome Him, glad-hearted:
Hallelujah!

Lift thine eyes, O Magdalena!
See! thy living Master stands;
See His face, as ever, smiling;
See those wounds upon His hands,
On His feet, His sacred side,—
Gems that deck the Glorified:
Hallelujah!

Live, now live, O Magdalena!
Shining is thy new-born day;
Let thy bosom pant with pleasure,
Death's poor terror flee away;
Far from thee the tears of sadness,
Welcome love, and welcome gladness!
Hallelujah!

[April 28.]

Diversions are of various kinds. Some are almost peculiar to men, as the sports of the field,—hunting, shooting, fishing. Others are indifferently used by persons of both sexes,—as races, masquerades, plays, assemblies, balls, cards, dancing, and music; to which may be added, the reading of plays, novels, romances, newspapers, and fashionable poetry. Some diversions, which were formerly in great request, are now fallen into disrepute. The nobility and gentry (in England at least) seem totally to disregard the once fashionable diversion of hawking; and the vulgar themselves are no longer diverted by men hacking and hewing each other in pieces at broad sword. The noble game of quarter staff, likewise, is now exercised by very few. Yea, cudgeling has lost its humor, even in Wales itself. Bear bating is now very seldom seen, and bull bating not very often. And it seems cock fighting would totally cease in England, were it not for two or three right honorable patrons. It is not needful to say anything more of these "foul remains of Gothic barbarity," than that they are a reproach, not only to all religion, but even to human nature. One would not pass so severe a censure on the sports of the field. Let those, who have nothing better to do, still run foxes and hares out of breath. Neither need much be said about horse races, till some man of sense will undertake to defend them. It

seems a great deal more may be said in defense of seeing a serious tragedy. I could not do it with a clear conscience, at least, not in an English theater, the sink of all profaneness and debauchery; but possibly others can. I cannot say so much for balls or assemblies, which are more reputable than masquerades, but must be allowed, by all impartial persons, to have exactly the same tendency. So undoubtedly have all public dancing. Of playing at cards, I say the same as seeing of plays. I could not do it with a clear conscience. But I am not obliged to pass any sentence on those that are otherwise minded. I leave them to their own Master; to Him let them stand or fall.

But supposing these, as well as the reading of plays, novels, newspapers, and the like, to be quite innocent diversions, yet are there not more excellent ways of diverting themselves, for those that love or fear God? Would men of fortune divert themselves in the open air? They may do it, by cultivating and improving their lands, by planting their grounds, by laying out, carrying on, and perfecting their gardens and orchards. At other times, they

may visit and converse with the most serious and sensible of their neighbors; or they may visit the sick, the poor, the widows, and fatherless in their afflictions. Do they desire to divert themselves in the house? They may read useful history, pious and elegant poetry, or several branches of natural philosophy. If you have time, you may divert yourselves by music, and perhaps by philosophical experiments. But, above all, when you have once learned the use of prayer, you will find that this will fill every space of life, be inter-fused with all your employments, and, wherever you are, whatever you do, embrace you on every side. Then you will be able to say boldly:

"With me no melancholy void,
No moment lingers unemployed,
Or unimproved below;
My weariness of life is gone,
Who live to serve my God alone,
And only Jesus know."

—Readings from John Wesley.

COLOR IN THE ANIMAL WORLD.

BY THE REV. J. G. WOOD.

PART SECOND.

Among the fishes protective color is seldom seen, simply because it is not needed. See what Shakspeare has to say on this subject:

"Master, I marvel how the fishes live in the sea?"

"Why, as men do a-land, the great ones eat up the little ones."

Moreover, they do so without any attempt at stratagem, so that protection is not required when they are young. I have hatched many of the common squid (*Sepia*) from the egg, and been much interested in watching the various hues flit over the surface of the body, even a passing cloud or the sharp movement of the hand being sufficient to induce the change of color. As with the chameleon, the colors continued to change after death, and even if a piece of skin were removed from the body, the hues changed as frequently as if it still belonged to the living creature.

Some of the cuttles also are able to alter their coloring as swiftly as the chameleon. In his "Naturalist's Voyage," Darwin gives an interesting account of some which he watched at St. Jago. "These animals escape detection by a very extraordinary chameleon-like power of changing their color. . . . These changes are effected in such a manner that clouds varying in tint between a hyacinth-red and a chestnut-brown were continually passing over the body."

Among insects protective color is so common that were I only briefly to enumerate half the known examples, my entire space would be exhausted. In most cases, form is united with color as a protective element. See, for example, the well-known leaf-insects, which bear so exact a resemblance to growing leaves and twigs that even a practical entomologist is sometimes deceived by them. I have seen some of these insects seated among the leaves of an evergreen shrub, and if I had not known beforehand what to expect, I should certainly have failed to notice the presence of a single insect.

This resemblance possibly may aid the leaf-insect in the capture of its prey. It is extremely voracious, though it can endure a very long fast. Being slow in its movements, it cannot capture its insect game in fair chase, but has to

wait until prey comes within its reach. Then, with a movement so quick that the eye can scarcely follow it, the two foremost leaves show themselves in their true character of prehensile legs, strike at the unlucky insect, and carry it to the ready jaws. I am quite sure that no insect could distinguish this creature from the leaves among which it sits, and so walks unsuspectingly into its clutches.

Quite as extraordinary in protective color and form is the remarkable leaf-butterfly discovered by Mr. A. R. Wallace, and described in his "Malay Archipelago." I will give an abstract of his description. The upper surface of this butterfly is a rich purple, with a broad bar of deep orange on the upper wings, so that it is a very conspicuous insect. "This species was not uncommon in dry woods and thickets, and yet I often endeavored without success to capture it. For after flying a short distance, it would enter a bush among dry or dead leaves, and however carefully I crept up to the spot, I could never discover it till it would suddenly start out again, and then disappear in a similar place. At length I was fortunate enough to see the exact spot where the butterfly settled, and though I lost sight of it for some time, I at length discovered that it was close before my eyes, but that in a position of repose it so closely resembled a dead leaf attached to a twig, as almost certainly to deceive the eye even when gazing full upon it. I captured several specimens on the wing and was able fully to understand the way in which this wonderful resemblance is produced."

In this butterfly the protective coloring belongs to the under surface of the wings which are so formed and tinted that when pressed together over the back, as is the habit of most butterflies when resting, they look exactly like a withered leaf still adhering to the twig. Even the midrib is represented by a dark stripe which runs from the tail of the hind wings to the tip of the fore wings, while the tail itself represents both in color and shape, the foot-stalk of the leaf.

In some of the mammals and birds there exists a power of annually changing the color of their clothing according to the season of year. One example of each will be sufficient.

The first is the familiar stoat, which, during the greater

part of the year is ruddy above, whitish below, and black at the tip of the tail. Severe and long continued cold has, however, the effect of converting all the ruddy fur into a peculiar creamy white, the tip of the tail still retaining its jetty blackness. In this state the animal is called by the equally familiar and more honorable name of ermine and has for centuries been worn as a mark of rank.

In England, the cold is seldom so severe or lasts so long that it can convert a stoat into an ermine. Specimens in a transitional state are, however, tolerably common, and I have now before me one of these stoats which was captured near Huntingdon by Mr. J. Brown, who was kind enough to send it to me. The fur about the muzzle retains its reddish brown, the color passing over the eyes nearly to the ears, leaving the forehead pure white. The whiteness extends to the shoulders, where it is replaced by yellow fur which extends over the rest of the body and limbs. Along the upper part of the shoulders are some small brownish patches, which on examination show that the long outer hairs have changed their color, while the inner fur is still brown. On parting the yellow fur, the under coating is seen to be gray.

The value of ermine fur and the mode of trapping the animal do not come within the scope of these papers, except that it is necessary to state that the northern parts of Europe and America supply the necessary conditions for bleaching the fur, and that in those regions alone can the ermine-hunters ply their trade.

Our second example is the common ptarmigan, a bird whose plumage is equally protective in summer and winter. During the warmer months of the year the colors are brown, black, and gray, with some white on the legs, wings, and tail. Frequenting rocky localities, and crouching close when alarmed, it assimilates so well with the background that the sharpest eye can scarcely detect it, even when the gaze is absolutely resting upon the crouching bird. In the winter, however, snow changes all and the ptarmigan changes too, throws off his speckled summer costume and dons in its stead a coating of pure white feathers which even when viewed against the snow do not look dingy. It is one of the hardiest of birds, seeming actually to revel in frost and storm, and when alarmed, squats in the snow so closely that its back scarcely projects above the surface.

In both these creatures, the bleaching of the fur in the one case, and of the feathers in the other, is so evidently protective that no arguments are needed by way of proof. Whether or not the yellow-white clothing of the polar bear be intended as a protection against enemies or as a means of allowing it to steal unseen upon its prey, or both, I will not venture to assert, especially as the fur is easily distinguishable from the snow, while that of the ptarmigan is almost as white as snow itself.

As to the abnormal and individual whiteness which is designated as "albinism," and which prevails largely in the higher vertebrates, it evidently is caused by a deficiency in the natural power of supplying coloring matter to the hair or feathers, and is mostly accompanied by other symptoms of functionary weakness. For example, albinism in birds, rabbits, rats, mice, and human beings (in which last mentioned case the subject, if female, is often exhibited as a "Circassian princess") is accompanied by pink eyes and inability to endure light.

Sometimes there is a normal albinism, such as we find in cats and horses, where, except under peculiar circumstances, there is no diminution of strength or failure in any of the ordinary faculties. Sometimes, however, such circumstances do occur, such as the existence of blue eyes in a white cat, B-apr

in which case pussy is, I believe, always deaf. I have possessed one or two such cats and seen several others, but never saw a single instance in which the animals were not either totally or nearly deaf. I have never heard that white horses are liable to this ailment, but I am told that white terrier dogs are liable to defective hearing. Animals which, like the swan, the egret, and others, are normally white, do not appear to be defective in any of their faculties.

It has often been suggested that the various hues with which so many birds' eggs are adorned, are of a protective nature, and are intended to preserve them from egg-eating beasts, birds, or reptiles. It is true that in a few cases, as for example the lapwing, the eggs are so similar in appearance to the soil on which they are laid, with only a few grass blades between them and the ground, that they would escape the keenest eye unless it were especially trained to find them.

Most eggs which are laid in situations similarly exposed, are dark colored, and in their case it is evident that their hue does serve as a protection. But on the other hand it may be urged that the very invisibility of the eggs, which saves them from intentional foes, may render them liable to be trodden upon or otherwise accidentally destroyed. Moreover, many birds, though they do not place their eggs on the bare ground, yet build their nests in such exposed localities that their interior is in full view of any creature which is above them. Yet, the eggs of these birds are often so brightly colored that they can be seen from a considerable distance, and often lead to the discovery of the nest.

I am inclined to think that birds have but little eye for color. For example, the egg of the European cuckoo is brown, and not much unlike that of the sparrow. One would have thought, therefore, that the cuckoo, when she intends to foist her own egg upon some other bird, would choose one the color of whose egg was like that of her own. Yet, she has a special liking for depositing her brown egg in the nest of the hedge warbler or the redstart. Both these birds lay bright blue eggs, and yet when the parent bird comes home after the visit of the cuckoo, she is quite unconscious that there is in the nest one egg more than when she left it, and moreover that the intruding egg is brown, while her own eggs are blue. It is evident that in this case, color is no protection to the egg, and that neither of the parents seem capable of distinguishing between brown and blue.

This brings us to another point in physiology.

A theory of late years has been widely accepted, to the effect that the splendid hues which adorn many male birds are due to the fascination which bright colors exert on the female sex. If "depolarized," to use Dr. O. W. Holmes' happy expression, the theory of "selection," as it is called, may be summarized as follows: originally, all birds were dull brown or drab until by accident, a red, blue, or green feather appeared among the plumage of a male. This feather made him a favorite with the opposite sex, was inherited by the offspring, and in process of time no female would accept a male who had no colored feathers in his plumage, so that brown and drab males were by degrees edged out of the world.

Then some lucky male had two colored feathers in each wing, and so the process of development went on until it culminated in the peacocks, the humming-birds, the paradise birds, and other gorgeously plumaged species. The same process of selection also affected other orders of beings, especially the insects, and thus the infinite variety of color in the animal world is explained.

Now it seems to me that this theory involves a wholly

untenable assumption. Its promulgators assume that the right of choice lies with the female, whereas in the lower animals the female has no choice at all. The males fight for her, and she belongs to the conqueror. Even among mankind this custom prevails in all uncivilized or, indeed, in partially civilized nations.

Had strength, instead of beauty, been taken as the point on which natural selection turns, no theory could be sounder. The males fight for the possession of the females, the stronger kills or drives away the weaker, and the females, not caring in the least which may win, become the property of the victor, thus insuring a strong and healthy progeny.

But that the color of the male causes him to be chosen by the female, I cannot believe. In the first place, as I have already shown, the power of choice does not rest with the females, and in the next place, as proved by the inability of a female bird to distinguish between a blue and brown egg, she cannot possess such an eye for color as is assumed by the upholders of the theory of selection by color.

Lastly, there are many examples of color in the animal world for which we can suggest no object. Take, for example, the sea-mouse (*Aphrodita*), which is clothed with long hairs equaling, for nothing can surpass, the plumage of the humming-bird in glittering splendor. Yet, the creature lives at the bottom of the sea, imbedded in black mud, so that no eyes can see and enjoy its wonderful beauty. Why should the beaks of the toucans be so splendidly colored, especially as both sexes are equally gorgeous? Why should the face of the adult male mandrill be striped with blue and scarlet, and the opposite extremity of the baboon be decorated with a scarlet scarcely less brilliant? Why should the young of the wild boar be adorned with yellow stripes? Why should the Malayan tapir be black as far as the shoulders, and the rest of the body as white as if a sheet had been thrown over it? Why should its young be covered with spots and stripes of yellow fawn, and why should these decorations fade away as it approaches maturity?

Zoölogy bristles with similar queries, and as yet there are none to answer them.

WHAT INVENTORS HAVE DONE FOR FARMING.

BY JAMES K. REEVE.

Agriculture was the first—and as bread must be had for the sustenance of the human race so long as the latter exists, it is likely to be the last—occupation of man; so that co-existent with the history of the birth and progress of the race we have the history of the development of agriculture; and as the development of agriculture has been largely contingent upon the growth of the mechanical genius of succeeding ages, we have finally in machinery—in agricultural machinery—the key to the progress of nations.

Old Tubal Cain left no record of the fashion of such implements as he prepared for the earliest tillers of the soil, but they could hardly have been more primitive in design and construction than those used by the Egyptian fellah—a veritable autochthon—who three thousand years ago dug the earth with a crooked stick, scattered the seed upon the ground thus roughly prepared, and when the harvest came, reaped it laboriously with the rudest of sickles. The grain was then threshed by tramping with oxen or beating with hand-flails; winnowed by throwing into the air and separating the chaff with fans, or by the natural current of air. These methods were slow, and required a great amount of severe manual labor for a small resultant product; yet they sufficed for the needs of a people who were almost wholly pastoral. For a nation like our own, where nearly sixty per cent of the population are engaged in pursuits other than those of the soil, and relying practically upon the remainder to produce the food requisite for the sustenance of the whole, this demand for food would alone be a sufficiently impelling cause toward speedier practices in procuring it.

We are not compelled, however, to go back to the beginning of history to discover the use of primitive implements: the heavy Roman *tribulum* in use so late as 100 B. C. could not have been much of an improvement over the "new, sharp, threshing implement, having teeth" (Isaiah 41:15); and the sickle of our own colonial period was not much better than that of the Egyptians, so far as speedy work and the saving of labor were concerned. In Japan, grain is reaped almost wholly with the sickle at the present time, or with the shears, an implement still more awkward. With the latter tool the heads of the grain only are cut, and dropped into

a basket carried by the reaper. This practice of cutting the heads only and leaving the straw standing, is now in vogue in some of our own prairie states, where, in a system of agriculture in which grain-growing so largely predominates, the quantity of straw produced has been found superfluous; with the slight difference that here the work is performed by a huge machine called a "header," and the grain as cut is dropped into a box having a capacity of many bushels, which is carried on the machine.

A modern Japanese threshing scene is equally suggestive of primitive times; this work is still done there with a flail, or with hatchels, which are a sort of inverted rake-head with the teeth set closely together; through this, handfuls of grain are drawn and the heads pinched off by compression of the teeth.

The Indian ryot,³ who is the principal competitor of the American farmer in the wheat markets of the world, uses as his reaper a blade of iron six inches in length, one inch in width, and curved like an old-fashioned sickle, with a notched edge and a short handle. The cost of the implement is four cents. The harvester sits upon his heels, cuts a handful of straw, which he lays down, and then waddles on without rising. As this reaping machine cuts only about one twelfth of an acre per day, it would not seem a very serious rival to the modern self-binder; yet the wheat harvest of India may be roughly stated at 300,000,000 bushels per annum. This production, however, would not be sufficient to allow the large annual exportation were it not that the consumption of grain there is much less *per capita* than with us.

The use of hand implements instead of machinery in harvesting operations seems very antiquated; yet men still living remember when the sickle was the only harvesting machine, and young men can recall the cradle and the flail. Indeed these latter implements are not yet wholly done away with, but are used somewhat in sections where grain is cultivated only to a small extent.

In some of our states hay is the most important agricultural product, and rapid work and skillful handling at harvest time are the first requisites for preserving the value of the crop.

It is not very many years since the scythe, the hand-rake, and the pitchfork were the only implements with which to harvest it. Now it is cut with a mowing-machine, gathered into the windrow with a horse-rake, turned over, that it may cure the quicker, with a tedder, put upon the wagon by a loader, and taken thence into the barn with a horse-fork which, running upon a carrier, deposits its load in the farthest corner of the mow; and manual labor, except in control of the machines and guidance of the teams, is not required in the entire process. Thus it is possible for the entire hay crop of an ordinary farm to be harvested between sunrise and sunset, without addition to the ordinary working force. With hand implements alone, a half dozen men would be required in the place of each of the modern machines, and with them the work would not be done either so well or so quickly.

The tendency of all developing nations is toward the withdrawal of the bulk of the population from agricultural pursuits. The United States is constantly progressing on this line; according to the census of 1870, forty-seven per cent of our population were engaged in agriculture; in 1880, forty-four per cent; in 1885, forty-two per cent; now probably less than forty per cent, with the ratio still diminishing. Yet our agricultural production is equal in value to the sum of \$64 for each individual of our population, as against \$8 *per capita* in India where seventy per cent are tillers of the soil. This it is which is making ours—the youngest among the nations of the earth—the richest. This condition has been made possible only by the development of our mechanical genius. Our population doubled in the twenty-seven years from 1853 to 1880. Our wheat area doubled in the last fifteen years of that period, and other agriculture kept pace with that advance. Had the facilities for carrying on the operations of husbandry not been improved during this time, such a withdrawal from the other pursuits of life would have been obligatory, if the agriculture was to be sustained as would have reduced us to a merely agricultural people. Yet while new lands were being so rapidly brought under cultivation, there was being steadily released from the occupations of the soil an army of recruits to the ranks of commerce, the arts, and sciences.

The mere statistical expression of the extent of the present manufacture of agricultural machinery in the United States does not convey an adequate idea of its relative importance in our domestic economy. In 1886 there were 1,943 manufacturing establishments, employing 39,000 hands, turning out a yearly product at \$68,000,000, and disbursing annually \$15,000,000 in wages; this, besides the money and labor expended in corollary branches. If we should follow the manufactured product forward through the hands of wholesale and retail dealers, local and traveling agents, field experts, etc., and the crude material backward to the forest and the mine; if we should also compute the machinery used in the manufacture of this machinery; the fuel consumed in the production of both; the addition which all this makes to the carrying trade and the commerce of the country, we might begin to acquire a realizing sense of the immensity of its endless contingent.

The geographical distribution of the industry is as wide as our country itself, ranging literally from Maine to California; but its characteristics vary according to the agricultural requirements of different sections. In New England, where the grain acreage upon individual farms is usually restricted to a small area, and where the topography of the country is often such as to preclude the advantageous use of heavy machines, hand implements such as hay forks, hay rakes, feed cutters, lawn mowers, and grain cradles are the chief product. Heavier machinery such as mowers, reapers, threshers, and

similar composite products are mainly manufactured in the great belt of states from New York to Illinois. In these states is found not only the rich agricultural condition which affords a ready market for a fair proportion of the output, but, as these necessitate a factory organization for their economical production, they can command here the centralization of labor, capital, and commercial enterprise needed for conducting the manufacture on the largest scale.

The general introduction into this manufacture of the principle of interchangeable mechanism, has been one of the leading causes for its centralization into a few great establishments, instead of its diffusion into numerous petty shops located here and there throughout the country. While the industry has been steadily growing, as shown by the continually increasing number of operatives employed, the number of establishments has been decreasing since about 1870. The number of operatives has increased in the United States during three decades as follows: in 1850 there were 7,217; in 1860, more than twice as many, 14,799; in 1870 there were 25,248; in 1880 there were 39,564. Yet the number of establishments in the six great states of New York, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana, had decreased from 1,424 in 1870 to 1,100 in 1880. This decrease has been mainly wrought by consolidation, and the absorption of smaller concerns by the larger.

The principle of interchangeable mechanism, referred to above, is the American adaptation of an old practice; but it has expanded so greatly under the influence of American inventiveness that it can almost be said to have originated here. The practice of making single objects of general utility, such as steel pens, pins, and needles, by machinery or by successive processes, is an old one. In the division of labor, workmen have special operations to perform in succession on the same object before it is completed. The adaptation of this method to the making of complete machines or implements, each part of which may be introduced into any machine of the same kind, is the American idea. By this process the cost of manufacture has been reduced, while the strength and durability of the machines has been increased. A special machine and a special workman continually engaged in a single special operation must eventually be able to perform that operation at the least cost and to the best advantage. After the parts have been thus produced in large numbers, the machines are assembled at a single operation; and after they are in the field, if a part breaks, instead of taking the whole bulky machine to a shop for repairs, the number of the piece is telephoned or telegraphed to the factory or nearest warehouse, and it is sent by the first express. This saving of time and labor in the busy season of harvest, where a day lost means money lost, is one of the great advantages resulting from this system of manufacture. While many industries outrank this in statistical importance, none are further reaching in their consequences. Not alone has agriculture been aided in its development, but the labor released from that employment has aided the aggrandizement of all other branches of human industry. It has enabled a much smaller part of our population to supply the physical needs of the whole, and has aided to increase that whole with its consequent demand for the supply. It has built up a market for and supplied the means with which to purchase an ever-growing quantity of the products of the farm; and has multiplied and enabled the farm proportionately to increase its ability to supply this market.

In the development of our great West, agricultural machinery has been a most important factor. By its aid the settler upon new lands has been enabled speedily to put under cultivation large areas, the working of which would have

been impossible under pre-existing methods. It has cheapened the cost of production so that in the districts most remote from the centers of consumption, agriculture may be pursued without reducing the agriculturist to the depths of poverty and drudgery which are the present rewards for the unenlightened tiller of the soil in Egypt and India.

It has bettered the condition of agricultural labor; for such labor receives its best reward in those countries and districts where machinery is most employed. The laborer who, in connection with his machine, accomplishes the work of ten or more men, is of much greater value to his employer than the one who, as the best result of his unassisted toil, can produce hardly more than enough to recompense his labor.

It has been a leavening influence in the education and mental elevation of the agricultural laborer. Where from boyhood the farmer's boy is habituated to the use of machinery more or less complex, where he is taught to study the quickest methods of work and to intelligently choose such tools as will best serve the accomplishment of that end, his faculties of observation are sharpened and made ready for use in other affairs of life.

Perhaps the most marked social change resulting from the general introduction of machinery into agriculture has been the tendency of the business of grain-growing to become isolated from that of general farming, and to establish itself as a special industry upon lands and in regions which are peculiarly fitted for it. The present tendency in the older states, caused by increasing population and the advancing value of farming lands, is toward a smaller division of agricultural holdings. With smaller farms comes the growing of products having a greater value per acre; and to meet the demands of the increasing urban population, the growing of products which are for immediate consumption. Thus grain-growing is relegated to cheaper lands, to larger areas, and—as the product can be transported to any distance—to those portions of our territory more remote from the thickly populated centers. These requisite conditions were found to exist in our trans-Mississippi states, toward which the movement of wheat-growing has been continuous for thirty-five years. Within that period, which has been marked by so wonderful a growth in the population and industries of all sections of our country, there has been a very slight increase in the absolute quantities of wheat grown upon the Atlantic Coast—while the proportion has declined from 51.4 to 12.2 per cent. In 1850 half the wheat crop was grown

east of the Alleghanies; in 1884 half the crop came from beyond the Mississippi, and only one twentieth from the Atlantic Coast. It can readily be seen that this immense growth of production in the sparsely settled West would not have been possible without mechanical aids to labor. The harvesting there of a quarter of a billion bushels of grain would require the assembling of so large a portion of the working population that all other branches of industry would be denuded. But now, where thousands of acres of grain are grown upon single farms, a dozen self-binders are started at once, one or more steam threshers are put at work directly in the field, and the harvesting becomes merely a routine incident of the year's operations. The grain is hardly more than ripe in the field before it has become a product of flour from the mill, or is on its way by rail and steamer to the great markets of the world.

The saving of labor which machinery effects for the agriculturist, means a saving of money values; not only fewer hours of work personally, and less exhausting drudgery, but more comfortable homes, more wholesome food, better clothing, books, periodicals, education for his children, a higher civilization, and the accomplishment of that result which the Rev. E. E. Hale has so happily characterized as the world's work—"the making of happy homes." Another result that may properly be attributed to the influence of machinery in agriculture, is the setting westward of our "Star of Empire." Population is naturally attracted toward the sources of food supply, and so in the track of the farmer, with his reaper and binder and thresher, are following the merchant and artisan, the doctor and the lawyer, the church and the school-house.

There, too, will be repeated the tendency—which is already so apparent in the East—of the population to centralize in the cities. Under existing conditions so few laborers can accomplish so much in the field that by far the larger portion of the incomers are compelled to go to the cities to find employment. Thus what has been thought one of the dangerous tendencies of American civilization, but which is a concomitant of the progress of nations, will be fostered by the very influence most important for the continuance of our national prosperity. For if thrown back upon primitive resources, the millions who are already here, to say nothing of the millions who are yet certainly to come, could not be afforded sustenance without relegating us wholly to the primeval occupation.

THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

BY A. G. WARNER, Ph. D.

Very different thoughts are brought to our minds by the two words "Bethlehem" and "Bedlam," yet the second is only a corruption of the first, and the miserable associations it recalls are connected with it because in a "hospital" founded in 1247 for the order of St. Mary of Bethlem (or Bethlehem) the insane were treated, or mistreated, during three centuries.

"In the Middle Ages the insane had been canonized as saints, burnt as heretics, or hanged as criminals, according to the particular bias of their mental disorder. At a later date harmless madmen roamed the country and made sport for the people; but if only suspected of being dangerous, society in terror took the most cruel precautions for its own safety, with an utter disregard for the feelings of the unfortunates, or for their chances for recovery. Londoners out

for a holiday paid their two-pence to stroll through Bedlam and laugh at the poor lunatics; at another time the town was panic-stricken because the Lord George Gordon rioters threatened to let the madmen out of Bedlam."

"In the early part of the present century," says one of the pioneers of enlightened treatment, "lunatics were kept constantly chained to walls in dark cells, and had nothing to lie upon but straw. The keepers visited them, whip in hand, and lashed them into obedience; they were also half drowned in 'baths of surprise,' and in some cases semi-strangulation was resorted to. The 'baths of surprise' were so constructed that the patients in passing over a trap-door fell in; some patients were chained in wells, and the water made to rise until it reached their chins. One horrible contrivance was a rotary chair in which patients were

made to sit and were revolved at a frightful speed. The chair was in common use. Patients, women as well as men, were flogged at particular periods, chained and fastened to iron bars, and even confined in iron cages."²

Reforms in the methods of treating the insane did not begin with much vigor until the early part of the present century. At that time there was no adequate provision for the inspection and supervision of the asylums of England. The insane are a class one would willingly forget, and each manager of an asylum was quite apt to be a law unto himself. Friends were often denied access to the patients on the ground that it counteracted salutary treatment. Especially in the private asylums, abuses were numerous and awful, and even where inspection on the part of public officials was supposed to be thorough, it was afterward found that in some cases there had been secret wards to which none but the interested keepers had been admitted. The laws for commitment also were wretchedly defective.

Philippe Penel in Paris, and William Tuke in England began at about the same time, but independently, to work out practical reforms in the treatment of the insane. Tuke, a member of the Society of Friends, established in 1792 the York Retreat. A writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, in 1814, in describing this, at that time novel experiment, says: "When a madman does not want to do what he is bid to do, the shortest method, to be sure, is to knock him down; and straps and chains are the species of prohibition which are least frequently disregarded. But the Society of Friends seems rather to consult the interest of the patient than the ease of his keeper, and to aim at the government of the insane by creating in them the kindest disposition toward those who have the command over them. . . . To the effects of kindness in the Retreat are superadded those of constant employment." These words still epitomize the conclusions of the best and most progressive thinkers upon this subject.

The York Retreat showed what was possible in the way of reform, but the movement was very slow. Nothing general was accomplished until in the twenties of the present century when the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, then Lord Ashley, was beginning his splendid career as a philanthropist. In 1828 the dreary succession of parliamentary investigating committees was succeeded by a temporary Commission in Lunacy, and this was replaced in 1845 by a permanent commission. The two bills relating to this subject, passed in 1845, have been called the "Magna Charta of the Liberties of the Insane."

From the institution of the commission, progress was general and rapid. This body had adequate authority for inspection, and when an evil can be clearly seen by the general public, its cure is comparatively easy. As a contrast to the earlier treatment of the insane in England, it is pleasant to read of such an institution as Broadmoor. This asylum is designed for the custody of the criminal insane. Of its five hundred inmates, ninety have murdered their own children, and three hundred have either committed murder or attempted to do so. In this whole institution, designed, as it is, for the most dangerous class of lunatics, no mechanical restraint is resorted to, no fetters, no strait-waistcoats, no leg-locks, or straps. The nearest approach to this species of restraint is forcing a patient into a padded cell having no furniture but a bed on the floor. The need of early attention to cases of insanity is shown by the fact that out of one hundred thirty-seven insane murderers at Broadmoor, insanity had been recognized before the crime in sixty cases, but the patient was either considered harmless or it was thought that adequate precautions had been taken.³

In the United States the proper care of the insane is a question of growing importance. The figures regarding insanity in this country are very misleading to all but the experienced and careful statistician. For instance, the census of 1870 gave the number of insane in the United States as 37,432, while the census takers in 1880 found 91,997 of this class. This would indicate that while the population of the country had increased during the decade only about 30 per cent., the number of the insane had increased nearly 148 per cent. Yet this astounding increase is mainly accounted for by the fact that in the tenth census more care was taken to omit none of these unfortunates than in the previous one. Different enumerations are also not comparable because the definition of insanity changes in various times and places. Some countries include idiots among the insane, and some do not, and other less palpable variations produce statistical quicksands in which none but experts can find a footing.

But even where statistics are collected by the same set of men and according to the same rules for a series of years, the increase is marked and alarming. Mr. F. B. Sanborn of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity of Massachusetts, and acting Lunacy Commissioner for that state since 1879, reports that the number of insane in asylums, etc., is now increasing from two hundred to two hundred fifty per year, which is a much larger proportionate increase than that of the sane population. Similar facts have been observed in New York and in other states. This increase is also partly nominal, resulting from the fact that many persons are now considered insane who a few years ago would not have been so enumerated. But Mr. Sanborn is doubtless right in thinking that there is a real as well as a nominal increase of the insane; and also right in saying that no single cause will account for it. Some of the more generally accepted causes may be given: (1) A large foreign immigration; the character of the immigrants will probably explain in a measure the increase, besides which the complete change of conditions seems to unsettle the minds of many on coming to this country; (2) the over-tension of modern life, especially in the large cities; (3) the more humane treatment of the insane, tending to lessen the death rate among them; (4) the not improbable fact suggested by Dr. Pliny Earle, "that insanity as a whole is really becoming more and more an incurable disease."

On this point Mr. Sanborn says that in Worcester Hospital less than 30 per cent of the patients permanently recover.

In providing for this ever increasing burden it has been customary in this country to share the load between the municipal, county, and state governments. The welfare of the patient, the safety and comfort of the community, and the amount of expense to be incurred are all factors to be considered. The insane are cared for most cheaply when their care is left to the local political units. At the county alms-houses and poor-farms the insane are cared for very cheaply, sometimes more cheaply than is either humane or wise. These numerous small institutions are very hard to supervise, and as they are usually managed by some ex-farmer or artisan who can receive but a meager salary, they are often the scenes of flagrant abuses, and expert medical attention to the cases is almost impossible. There has been a very marked tendency to transfer the insane to state care. The annual per capita cost for state care is usually between one and three hundred dollars, while in the counties it varies from nothing up to one hundred fifty dollars. There are, however, very few places where the county poor-farm is self-supporting.

The first class to be remanded to state care is usually the acute or curable insane. It is eventually economical to give these persons the best treatment in order that as many of them as possible may be cured. But experience shows that less than one third of the cases can be cured even with the best possible treatment, and many states remand their chronic insane to the care of the counties. By the Willard Act, New York State itself assumed the care of all its insane, but the expense involved was so enormous that numerous counties have been exempted from the act, and allowed to provide for their own dependents of this class. There are other evils than excessive expense connected with the overgrown state institutions. When from fifteen hundred to two thousand patients are crowded into one institution as is the case in the Willard Asylum in New York and others, the machinery of management gets too cumbrous for the best results. Individualization of cases is almost impossible, and in many persons insanity undoubtedly has been intensified and rendered incurable by what almost might be considered the contagion of these great caravansaries, and by the nervous strain of submitting to their rigid routine.⁴

The plan of massing lunatics in the populous wards of great buildings is known as the congregate system of treatment. This plan is now giving way to what is known as the segregate system. By this latter plan the monumental piles, ward above ward and wing added to wing, are replaced by "detached wards," or even separate cottages, managed on the "family system." If a large farm is owned by the state, an asylum of this sort is capable of almost indefinite expansion, while at the same time the different classes of patients can have skilled and appropriate treatment. The violent and untidy patients can best be provided for in a large central building, where also the principal officers and physicians may have their residence. This plan has been most extensively tried at Kankakee, Illinois, though the legislature of that state disappointed the projectors of the plan by prescribing "cottages" much larger than desired.

An extension of this idea of segregation has led to the adoption in Michigan of the "Colony System," under which quiet chronic insane are to be scattered over a large farm, all, however, to be under one management. The experiment is being, or rather is to be, tested at Kalamazoo. It is hoped by this method that the inmates may be profitably employed to their own improvement, and the lessening of expense. In Belgium and some other foreign countries this plan has given very good results.

The plan of "boarding out" insane dependents in private

families has been tried to a considerable extent in Scotland, and Massachusetts is now making efforts in the same direction. It is found that many of the chronic patients, who are quiet, docile, and industrious can be placed with responsible farmers or others, at a very small expense and with good results to the patient. It is evident that the greatest care must be exercised in administering this system or it would lead to lamentable abuses. Only a very small proportion of the insane are fitted for boarding out, and for these the families to which they are to go must be selected with the greatest care.

Wisconsin prides herself on having devised a method of county care under state supervision. Where cure or improvement is considered possible, the patients are sent to a state hospital under the charge of specialists. Chronic cases not needing special restraint or care are sent back to the counties after hospital treatment can benefit them no further, but no county is allowed to care for its own insane unless the plans for its alms-house buildings and the management of that institution are approved by the State Board of Charities. If so approved there is a small weekly *per capita* allowance from the state treasury to the county that cares for its own insane. If not approved at any time, the State Board has the power to transfer all the insane belonging to the county to state institutions or the alms-house asylums of other counties, and collect the bill for their maintenance from the county to which they belong. Thus it is to the interest of the county to care for its own insane and to care for them properly.⁵

Some of the states have special provision for the custody of the criminal insane, but for the most part they have not. The special ways that are employed for legally establishing the insanity of a criminal are too various to be described here; but it may be said that there seems to be a healthy reaction against the sentimentality that allowed the plea of insanity so often to cheat the gallows.

After all that has been said about improvements, and methods, and systems it remains to be confessed that cupidity, popular indifference, and partisan politics have left the care of the insane in many states in a very unsatisfactory and sometimes barbarous condition. Even in the large and presumably well-managed institutions a patient is occasionally killed while being "corrected." As with so many other evils in this country, we can only trust that our quasi-deity, "enlightened public opinion," will insist upon thorough inspection and supervision of institutions for the care of the insane in all our states, and upon a treatment of these dependents at once economical, intelligent, and humane.

SUNDAY LABOR.

BY THE REV. JESSE H. JONES.

The Rev. Wilbur F. Crafts has made a careful estimate, based upon the United States census of 1880, showing the amount of Sunday labor done in this country. The census shows that there were in that year 17,392,099 persons, or about half of the population over ten years of age in the country engaged in occupations of all kinds. Of these, Mr. Crafts estimates that 3,145,572 were deprived of Sunday rest. But nearly half of these, including such classes as ministers, physicians, nurses, domestics, sailors, police, and several others, he deducts, as "engaged in occupations usually considered works of religion, mercy, and necessity." This done, it appears that 1,555,404 persons were "regularly

engaged in needless work for gain on Sunday" in 1880. Now, however, in view of the fact that "the occupations in which this needless Sunday work is done have grown very rapidly in the eight years since the census was taken," Mr. Crafts estimates that "the number engaged in needless Sunday work to-day hardly can be less than a round two millions." This is probably an under-estimate, but we accept it as approximately correct. It will be found upon examination that these two millions of people are practically coerced by their necessities in earning a living, to perform this Sunday labor.

An intelligent discussion of the Sunday labor question, as

it now exists in this country, requires that a distinction be drawn sharply between labor which primarily deals with material wealth, and labor that is primarily done for personal service. In discussing the forces in society which cause Sunday labor, this distinction is fundamental. Farming and fabric making are instances of the former; the mail train service is an instance of the latter. Again, in the department of personal service the subordinate distinction is to be noted between direct personal service, as that of the barber, and indirect personal service, as that of the baker.

Now, speaking broadly, in the field of the production of wealth there is almost no systematic Sunday labor done in this country. The farms are not worked and the factories are not run on that day. If a shower is coming up, occasionally a farmer gets in his hay if it is out, but it is an accident and not the system. Some repairing and cleaning may be done in the factory, but this also is accidental. More than four fifths of the toilers in the land have the Sunday rest if they wish it.

Some work that we believe to be needless is done in the fields of productive industry on that day. During their season the cheeseries and creameries run through the day. In mines and mining towns, where the precious metals are produced, the Sunday rest is unknown, save by an unregarded few; and the herdsmen on the cattle ranches are reported to be equally without it. But these, and what others of the like there be, are only a mere fringe on the edge of the question. The Sunday labor system does not *live* there; nor does it live anywhere in what is done for the production of wealth.

The life of the Sunday labor system in this country, is the determination of some human beings that other human beings shall serve them on that day. Again, the central driving gearing in the whole vast wheel of Sunday labor, is the railroad system. The origin of Sunday railroading, at least in New England, came wholly from a personal service; and it is still chiefly continued by the same force. The carrying of the mail is a direct personal service of man to man, and the origin of Sunday railroading in New England was in carrying the mail. The first railroad to run trains there was what was then the Boston and Worcester, now a part of the Boston and Albany. It began running trains a few miles out from Boston on Thursday, May 1, 1834. It was finished and began to run through to Worcester July 8, of the following year. Two years after, viz., on Sunday, July 2, 1837, a mail train began to run each way between Boston and Worcester. I have traced the history down from that time to recent date, and have concluded that the through Sunday passenger train system of the Boston and Albany has unfolded from that train, and mostly since the war.

Along with the carrying of the mail, there has been from the first the desire to accommodate passengers. This appears, for example, in the case of the Boston and Providence road, which began to run from Boston to Canton in September '34. Before that it had been the custom for stages to come through from Providence, bringing the passengers who left New York the night before, "to finish out the trip," as the current phrase is. From the first the railroad did on Sunday what the stages had done.

For many years there were no Sunday boats on the Old Colony line; but now, for some five months during the season, Sunday rest is unknown to that line, and the sole reason is to meet the requirements of the passenger business. But the carrying of passengers is wholly a personal service.

How far the Sunday passenger service has unfolded from the mail train outside of New England, there are no records accessible to me to show. But speaking of the time before

the war, and taking the New York Central as an instance, I believe that the history of that road in this matter would not greatly differ from that of the Boston and Albany; and that either will be found a sample of the history of our whole railroad system while the Sunday train movement was unfolding.

We now turn to the Sunday excursion train system, which is manifestly altogether a personal service. The whole system in New England sprang from a single "church train" that was obtained by church members to take them to church. After long and persistent efforts, certain well-to-do church members who had moved out from Boston to Brookline, but desired to attend their old churches in Boston, induced the manager of the Boston and Worcester to put on a train on Sunday between the two places, beginning in November, 1860. This was called a "church train," and after a few years other "church-trains" began to be put on, on that and on other roads. From these church trains, aided by milk trains, the whole Sunday excursion system that centers in Boston grew.

In like manner, also, did the running of horse-cars on most of the horse-railroads arise. Church-going people demanded the cars and got them; and then everybody else began to ride.

There is no sense of wrong-doing, but rather a clear and undoubting sense of right doing on the part of those who manage the Sunday travel. Take the case of the Old Colony railroad with its steamboats for an example. I think it has more shore travel than any other road in the land. The manager put the case for the Sunday night boats thus:

"There are thousands of families who come out from New York in the summer, and stop at the many watering places along the shore for a few weeks. The men cannot come. They must stay in the city and attend to their business. But if they can leave Saturday evening, and get back Monday morning, they can have a pleasant, restful day with their families on Sunday. They cannot wait till Monday morning to return, for it takes so long that the day is practically lost. No, I think that the Sunday night boat is a very good thing. It enables so many hard working and weary people to have a little rest which otherwise they could not get."

To misapprehend and misstate the motives which prompt the railroad men to run trains on Sunday, as is constantly being done by the religious press, is a serious misfortune. It offends those who are judged, and shuts them up against the religious view of the question; and it misleads those who would try to stop the running of such trains, so that their efforts are not shaped to the actual situation, but are shaped to a false view, and therefore are largely futile.

As a matter of fact, the Sunday trains were *not* put on from greed of gain, and they are not now run for the purpose of making dividends. At least this is the case in the East. If they can be made to pay expenses on Sunday the roads are content. The *only* motive that prompted the railroad men to put on the Sunday passenger trains was to meet the demands of the traveling public, especially their local patrons; and the freight trains are run for convenience. The mail train, the church train, the excursion train, the great through train, were all put on in response to this pressing public demand. Whether the public, who require the mail and great through trains to be run on Sunday, are moved by greed of gain thereto, is not in question now.

Moreover, as a rule in this country, the exceptions to which are too few to be considered, the working people do not wish to work on Sunday. They want the day more than the pay. In proof I present the action of the General Assembly of the Locomotive Engineers, and of the Knights of La-

bor, and of various lesser bodies, all indorsing the petitions to Congress now in circulation, asking for restrictive legislation against Sunday mails and other national Sunday work. I would note especially the testimony of the train-men. They do not wish to work on Sunday. They do not desire the seventh day's pay at the cost of earning it. They work on Sunday because that is a part of the system in which they work, and they could not keep their places if they did not. But they do not work seven days in the week. They take a day off during the week when they work on Sunday. This is a part of the system.

The custom among those who work regularly on Sunday of having a day off in the week, teaches an important lesson as to the monetary side of the matter. All persons who work by the day are paid the day prices of a day in a six-day week. Hence when they work on Sunday they get an extra day's pay. But those who have steady work take a day off rather than have the seven days' pay for seven days' work. The workingman wants the rest-day, and if he cannot get it on Sunday he will have it on some other day. The work of true Christians is to give him his rest-day when his fellowmen have theirs—on God's day.

Another fact is to be noted. Where Sunday labor is mostly in the nature of a personal service, as in this country, the price of the work keeps up to the standard of the day's pay in the six-day week; for personal service, because it produces no wealth, does not set the price of work; but the work that does produce wealth, for that reason sets the price of work, and that price personal service follows. But in Europe, where work for the production of wealth is so largely done on Sunday the tendency is irresistible to break down the price, so that those who work on Sunday get no more pay for seven days' work than they would for six, if all worked but six. The root reason for this I believe to be that a nation working seven days in the week cannot produce any more wealth, probably not as much, take the years through, as in six days. And the day's pay for personal service follows that for work done in the production of wealth. Hence in any nation where little or no Sunday work is done to produce wealth the day's wage will not diminish, however much personal service may be given. But when much of Sunday work to produce wealth is done, the price will surely break down; and when the price breaks down nobody will take a day off, but all will become every day drudges. Then morals and health, and a high tone of individual and national life will go down together.

This break-down of the price is in the nature of a universal law. Shortening the time of labor, raises its price, and lengthening the time, lessens the price. The case of the bakers somewhat illustrates this. They are a craft on the border-land where personal service and the production of wealth unite, and they have to work Sunday and do not get pay for the extra day.

The cases of the barbers, journalists, livery-keepers, telegraphers, messengers, and the regular army, all illustrate that the human will, determined to have the personal service of fellow-man on Sunday, is the originating cause and sustaining life of the Sunday work system of this country. Take that of the barbers for example. A part do not keep open on Sunday. Few of them want to. They want the day. They could do all the service there is for them in the six days, if their patrons would have it so; but they will not. The managers of the shops rarely more than pay expenses that day. Sometimes they are open at a loss. But those in hotels must be open during the forenoon to meet the demands of the hotel patrons, or they could not have the place at all.

I would not fail to get the whole question, as it is embodied in our modern society distinctly stated, and clearly understood. There are no material considerations which require any part of the "needless" Sunday labor which we are considering. The question is wholly one of morals and the human will, and it is, as I believe, this: Is the running of horse and steam cars a work of necessity like cooking food, or of mercy like nursing in a hospital? Does the engine-driver, in pulling the mail through the country, perform an act which Jesus of Nazareth would declare to be of the same nature as that of the man who pulls his ox out of the pit?

Now, while all can see that whoever is ministering to the sick and relieving the helpless, or performing those duties which are the necessities of the day for human life and health, are doing the Lord's will; and that, so far as these services are done in His Name, they are as truly God's means of grace as public worship in His house, nobody will think that any one was ever set to drive an engine to take people to a church far away, when there was plenty of church room close by. Everybody instinctively knows that all such engine-driving is unnecessary. Equally, also, everybody knows that all the excursion train business is altogether of the world, and that God is not in it in any wise. The case in brief is that some men work their fellowmen all through Sunday, making it alike for those who work, and for those who make them work, a mere secular day; and God is not in them, or in the day to them as they use it.

There is but one right way in this matter, and that is that from midnight to midnight the whole wheel of human action in the realm of material things should cease, except what nature compels, and that all the powers of every human soul should be set toward God and the things which belong to Him. All ways of human action that conflict with this should be cast aside, and only those ways which favor every man in setting his face with all his heart toward God, all the day long on God's day, should be allowed. Every true Christian heart is bound to do what in it lies to establish those ways.

There is not a Sunday train for which an excuse can be raised except possibly the milk train. There is not another for which any necessity of nature can be claimed. All the others are caused by the mere will of man, putting work into God's day which could at least as well be done on a secular day. If not a mail train was run in the whole land on Sunday, all the business that is now done could still be done just as well as it is, and everybody be just as well off in material goods as now. All that is necessary for this is a human purpose, and the re-adjustment would follow without serious difficulty. All the freight trains which are now run on Sunday could be run on week days if men only would. A question can arise only concerning three kinds of freight trains,—milk trains, cattle trains, and fruit trains. As to milk trains, let them be passed for the present as a necessity. The whole matter is so small that it may well be left to settle itself after the great matters are settled. It is now well known and beyond all doubt that it is far better for the cattle that they be turned out of the cars for rest and feeding and watering on that day. To keep the day would be a mercy to them, and would give much better meat to those who eat it. There are no stretches for the fruit trains which could not be covered between Sundays, except from California; and fruit that can be delivered to the consumer only at the cost of breaking God's day is too costly to be worth eating. There is no mercy or necessity that calls for such fruit.

In any event, but especially in view of what has been said,

the writer may justly be required to present what he deems the true solution of the Sunday Labor problem.

The first point of attack is to proclaim, in His Name, that *things are for men and not men for things*; and hence that all that is done concerning things, shall be so done that in the very way in which it is done it shall work for the spiritual welfare of all.

The power that will cure the evil must be one which will so work in mankind as to make the sense of God and the love of men altogether prevail over the sense of the world and the love of things; and this not only in the hearts of individual men, but also in the whole structure and movement of society.

The second part in the attack must be to teach that *Christianity is a life to be lived, as well as a salvation to be received*; that God in the heart requires God's ways in the

End of Required Reading for April.

APRIL.

BY ADA IDDINGS GALE.

The sobbing April waked me in the night,
O! piteous were her sobs and swift her tears
And quick her pulsing agitations: thrilled with fears
So would a child sob banished from the light.
But erst-while did she win a calmer mood
And sighed but faintly as one would, grown sane
In grief, knowing resistance all in vain:
And then soft slumber all my senses wooed.
When I awoke, lo! she had wreathed her face
With sunbeams bright, and dipped her sparkling feet
In pools of heaven's own sending, clear and sweet.
And in a pose of shy ecstatic grace
She beamed upon me like some fairy sprite—
She who had waked me, sobbing in the night.

THE FIRST PRESIDENTIAL INAUGURATION.

BY CHARLES CARLETON COFFIN.

On Thursday, September 13, 1788, Congress publicly announced the adoption of the Constitution of the United States by the ten states, and appointed the first Wednesday of January, 1789, as the day when the people should choose electors in the several states. On the first Wednesday of the following February the Presidential electors were to meet in their several states and choose a president and vice-president, and the 4th of March was selected as the day when the new Congress should assemble for the organization of a government with a written constitution.

The effect of the adoption of the Constitution upon the body politic in 1788 was like that of a tonic upon the human system. The city of New York took on new life. The very skies seemed to smile benignantly upon the country—so balmy the air, so long extended into December the Indian summer.

The government of the new republic was to be organized in that city. Quite likely the hope that the city might be selected as the permanent capitol of the nation stimulated the people to contribute thirty-two thousand dollars for the reconstruction of the old city hall for the use of the government.

The hall through the Revolutionary period had become

action; that God's ways apply to all secular things, and that those ways are as different in kind, in shape, structure, and motion, from the world's ways, as God's heart is different from the world's heart, as God's life is different from the earth greed of the carnal man. And the most important part of all this teaching is to show what are God's ways in secular life.

The practical form which our action must take is to *join with those who are to be directly benefited,—with the working-people themselves who are to be relieved, and to work with them along the lines which they can apprehend and understand.* When all the vast array of the Sunday rest people shall stand in close alliance with the working people's organizations, and these two united armies begin practical action at the same moment, then a power will appear that will bring the end of Sunday labor near.

dilapidated. In repairing it the architect united several styles, the lower story being Tuscan, the second Doric, with a cornice "ingeniously divided," as reads the description, "to admit thirteen stars in the metopes with an eagle and other insignia in the pediment, and sculptures of thirteen arrows surrounded by olive branches over each window." The Hall of Representatives was octangular, nearly sixty feet square, with a high arched ceiling, a speaker's chair, and a desk and chair for each representative. The windows were high and large. It was warmed by large fire-places.

The arched ceiling of the smaller Senate Chamber represented a blue sky with thirteen gilt stars emblazoned upon it. Along the walls were highly polished marble mantels above the capacious fire-places. Above the President's chair was a damask canopy. Three windows opened upon a balcony overhanging Broadway and looking down Wall Street upon which, in presence of the people, the first President of the United States was to swear allegiance to the newly adopted Constitution.

Not only did their forethought and liberality comprise the fitting up of a government building, but a house for the President. One of the most elegant residences of the city stood at the corner of Cherry Street and Franklin Square.

Samuel Osgood, of Andover, Mass., a member of Congress during the closing year of the war, and who was commissioner of the treasury under the Federation, to whose wife the house belonged, consented to find lodgings elsewhere that the President might occupy a house in keeping with his dignity.

The 4th of March was ushered in by the ringing of bells and the thunder of cannon, but though the day for the assembling of the new Congress had come, only eight Senators and thirteen of the Representatives had reached the city—the others, especially those from the South, were floundering on horseback, or in wagons, through the mud of Maryland and New Jersey. We are to remember that there were but few public conveyances in the country at that date. There was a rumbling, jolting, tri-weekly stage between Boston and New York. Gentlemen of distinction and wealth traveled in chaises. Yet Boston with all its wealth and culture in 1798, ten years after the formation of the new government, could boast only ninety-eight chaises and forty-seven coaches and phaetons. South of Philadelphia, chaises were unknown; there were only the lumbering family coach of the great families of Virginia and the wagon put together by the carpenter and blacksmith. The weather during the month of March was exceedingly severe. All the streams in the Middle States were overflowing their banks, rendering the fording places impassable and the members of Congress were compelled to wait at country taverns for the water to subside.

Not till the 5th of April were the votes for President opened and counted in Congress. All were for George Washington. For Vice-president a majority had been given for John Adams, who had just returned from England where he had represented the government under the Federation.

On the following day the Secretary of Congress, Charles Thomson, started for Virginia to inform Washington officially of his election, and a second messenger departed for Quincy, Mass., to notify Mr. Adams. The Vice-president arrived in New York on April 21. He was met at the boundary by Governor Clinton and a military escort and conducted to the Senate Chamber and inducted into office as presiding officer of that body, making a brief speech. Mr. Thomson was eight days in making the journey to Mount Vernon, arriving there just before noon on the 14th. Washington was out upon his farm giving directions in regard to the spring plowing, but returned for the noon-day meal, to welcome with a warm grasp of the hand one whom he had long known and honored. In the library Mr. Thomson handed him the official letter signed by John Langdon, president *pro tem.* of the Senate, the princely merchant of Portsmouth, N. H. It was the dinner hour at Mount Vernon, and we see the host and hostess, Mr. Thomson, Col. Humphreys, and Tobias Lear, sitting down to dinner. Col. Humphreys was from Derby, Connecticut. He graduated from Yale in 1771 and had been a tutor in the Phillips family on the bank of the Hudson, where Washington once had felt the charms of a fair maiden who did not accept his suit. Humphreys had been a member of Washington's staff, and when the war closed, had been selected as secretary of the commission which negotiated the treaty of peace. Upon his return, Washington had invited him to become a member of his family. Humphreys had been abroad four years spending most of the time in Paris. He had had the *entré* of court circles, was observant and thoughtful, could speak the French language fluently, and without doubt the information which he was able to impart was of inestimable value to Washington.

Tobias Lear, whose name recalls both the Apocrypha and Shakspeare, at the same time, was from Portsmouth, N. H. He was a graduate of Harvard, who had been recommended to Washington as one well fitted to give instruction to the children of Mrs. Washington, and who, besides being preceptor, was Washington's private secretary.

The dinner ended, we see Washington mounting his horse and accompanied by his faithful negro servant Billy, riding down to Fredericksburg to bid farewell to his mother, then past eighty, whom he was never again to see. Cheerful, affectionate, and tender the parting the next morning, when he returned to Mount Vernon.

At ten o'clock on the morning of the 16th he bade farewell to Mount Vernon and rode to Alexandria accompanied by the three gentlemen whom we had seen at the dinner table, and by the faithful, ever watchful Billy. It was with no elation of spirit that he rode along the wooded uplands of the Occoquan, but with depression rather. He had reached the period where, after the turmoil and struggle for the liberty of the country, he longed for the peace and quietness of the evening of life.

Though great and honorable the position to which his country had called him, he comprehended the great responsibility that had come to him, and at night wrote these words in his diary: "About ten o'clock I bade adieu to Mount Vernon, to private life and to domestic felicity, and with a mind oppressed, with more anxious and painful sensations than words can express, set out for New York."

At Alexandria his neighbors and friends had prepared a dinner for him. He had ever been the foremost citizen of the place,—member of its fire-company in his early years, benefactor of a school for the poor, giving one thousand pounds for its establishment, adviser in municipal and mercantile affairs. His old friend the mayor welcomed him with a felicitous address. These are the closing words of Washington's brief response:

"Words fail me; unutterable sensations must then be left to more expressive silence, while from an aching heart I bid all my affectionate friends and kind neighbors farewell."

The great northern road led directly to Georgetown, where there was another gathering of people. Reaching Baltimore in the evening he was given a public supper. The city was awakened at an early hour the following morning by the thunder of cannon, firing a parting salute, as Washington, at half past five, took his departure, accompanied beyond the city limits, by a cavalcade. At every village and hamlet and county cross-roads through Maryland and Delaware were gatherings of people. On the evening of the 19th he reached the Pennsylvania frontier where two troops of cavalry, a cavalcade of citizens, and Governor Mifflin met him. Thus far Washington had journeyed in his old lumbering family coach, but a horse elegantly caparisoned awaited him, and it was doubtless a relief for one so accustomed to equestrian exercise as he had been through life, to exchange the carriage for a saddle.

The cavalcade, augmenting in numbers at every village, was met at the crossing of the Schuylkill by a great procession, marshaled by Gen. St. Clair. On each bank of the river was a triumphal arch, approached through an avenue bordered by evergreens. Up amid the laurel of one of the arches was a little girl, Angelice Peale, child of Rembrandt Peale, the renowned artist of the last century. As Washington passed beneath the arch she dropped a wreath of laurel upon his head.

"Long live George Washington!" was the shout that went up from twenty thousand people as he passed onward

toward Philadelphia, where he sat down to a banquet spread in the dining hall of the city tavern.

The military of Philadelphia were on parade to escort him on his way to Trenton, but a heavy rain was falling and Washington would not consent that the soldiers should suffer any hardship in his honor, and he rode in his carriage.

The clouds had disappeared and the sun was shining when he crossed the Delaware in the afternoon. Twelve years had passed since that mid-winter night when he crossed it with his troops and won a victory which revived the waning fortunes of the country. Upon the bridge spanning the stream, the women of Trenton had erected a triumphal arch supported by thirteen pillars with the inscription: "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters." And the mothers with their daughters were there—all dressed in white to welcome him. Six of the young girls trained by the Rev. Mr. Antony, sang an ode written for the occasion by the governor of the state, Richard Howells:

"Welcome, Mighty Chief, once more
Welcome to this grateful shore.
Now no mercenary foe
Aims again the fatal blow,
Aims at thee a fatal blow.

Virgins fair and matrons grave
Whom thy conquering arm did save,
Build for thee triumphal bowers,
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers,
Strew the hero's way with flowers.

The governor and all the dignitaries of the state escorted the President to George Henry's tavern, a double row of children strewing flowers. It was a triumphal journey, a welcome everywhere by a united people. At Elizabethtown Point, on the morning of the 22d, Washington was met by a committee of both Houses of Congress. Leaving his carriage he entered a barge commanded by Commodore Nicholson, manned by thirteen pilots. From every topmast in the harbor of New York, flags were waving. A great fleet of small boats filled with ladies and gentlemen accompanied the barge. One vessel, the Spanish war ship *Galveston*, showed no flag till the barge containing the President was abreast, when suddenly her ports opened and her sides were aflame firing a national salute, while from topmast and spar the flags of every nation fluttered in the breeze.

The ferry stairs at the foot of Murray Street were carpeted and hung with crimson. Governor Clinton stood upon them. Military companies were paraded in the street.

Never in the history of the country had there been such a gathering of people. The streets were densely packed. Every window was filled. Throngs stood upon the house tops. Everywhere there were flags and banners, flowers and evergreens. Never before such hurraing in this Western world, with beating of drums, clanging of bells, and thunder of artillery. Never before had been heard the strains of music which burst upon the air from fife, clarionet, bassoon, trumpet, and drum, music composed for the occasion by band-master Phylla, conductor of music in the John Street Theater. He named it "Washington's March." Little did he think that it was to become one of the hymns of a great nation and that it was destined to go down the ages—the "Hail Columbia" of the Great Republic, which on that morning was taking its place among the nations.

All the dignitaries of the state were in the procession which escorted Washington to the house selected for his residence, where the foreign ministers called upon him. An elaborate dinner was served by Governor Clinton at his residence, and in the evening the city was illuminated.

A week passed by, in which the people of New York were preparing for the inauguration. Every hour added to the increasing throng—coming in sloops, boats, and barges, down the Hudson, crossing by ferry from New Jersey and Long Island, pouring in over Kingsbridge from Connecticut and Massachusetts, filling hotels and private houses, erecting booths, and pitching tents in fields and pastures, wrapping themselves in blankets and comforters at night, cooking their own meals, all waiting for the great event.

The morning of April 30th came, fair and beautiful, ushered in by the thunder of cannon. At nine o'clock the church bells rang and the great multitude thronged the churches to implore the blessings of heaven on the nation in its chosen President. The religious service ended, the procession formed in Franklin Square and Cherry Street, the militia under Col. Morgan Lewis, followed by the sheriff of the city and county of New York, the committees of the Senate and House of Representatives, Chancellor Livingston, Secretary John Jay, General Knox, Commissioner of the Treasury, and distinguished citizens, passing through Pearl and Broad to Wall Street, where the President left his carriage and walked past the militia to Federal Hall, the building in which Congress had assembled, received there by Vice-president Adams, who conducted him to the chair of state and introduced him to the assembled members of Congress.

"Sir," said the Vice-president, "the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States are ready to attend you to take the oath required by the Constitution, which will be administered by the Chancellor of the State of New York."

"I am ready," was the reply.

Upon the balcony stand Washington, Adams, Livingston, and the members of Congress. Below are the military, with burnished arms, and the seething multitude. From balcony and roof thousands of people look down upon the scene. Between the President and Livingston stands the venerable Secretary of the Senate, Thomson, holding a crimson cushion, upon which rests a Bible. Washington raises his right hand and rests it upon the open page. Slowly and solemnly the words of the oath fall from the lips of Livingston. The people behold the President as he bows his head to kiss the Book and hear him say, "I swear, so help me God."

"It is done, long live George Washington, President of the United States!" These words fall from the lips of Livingston.

Like the voice of many waters is the shout that goes up, while flags and handkerchiefs and three cornered hats wave in the air, bells clang, and cannon thunder, drums beat, and people surge to and fro, tossing up their hats in their enthusiasm over what they have seen—the beginning of the constitutional government of the republic.

In the Senate-Chamber the President delivered a brief address, and then escorted by the military, proceeds to St. Paul's Church, attended by both Houses of Congress, where religious service is held, and from there he is escorted to his own residence. In the evening the city is ablaze with light, every window illuminated, and transparencies in front of the houses of opulent citizens.

The house of the French ambassador, De Moustier, was adorned by paintings representing the past, present, and future of American history, the artist, Madam de Brehan, being the sister of the ambassador. Equally elaborate was the display made by Don Gordoqui, the Spanish minister.

Fire-works more brilliant than any ever before seen this side of the Atlantic, added to the brilliancy of the evening. Such the scene one hundred years ago on April 30, 1789, when the nation, after a period of tribulation, trial, and anarchy began its mighty career under a written constitution.

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION.

BY ROBERT McLEAN CUMNOCK.
Of Northwestern University.

The attention recently given to the subject of pronunciation suggests a few practical hints which may be of service to those who teach the subject, as well as to those who seek to be benefited by the study. In the recent discussions which we have read, the larger share of attention has been directed to the *quantity* of vowels, and the *correct accentuation* of words, rather than to the subtle distinctions of vowel sound which form the basis of refined and elegant speech. The chief reason for this is due to the ease with which quantity and accentuation may be determined; while on the other hand the difficulty of making sensible and just discriminations, in the finer shades of vowel sound, has kept people from venturing an opinion in that direction. Let us, as briefly as possible, indicate the vowel sounds that are most frequently abused. The long Italian *ä* in *fäther* is in most cases, correctly sounded; but there are forty, or more, words in our language in which either the broad sound of *a* as in *all*, or the short sound of *ä* as in *hat*, is substituted for the sound of Italian *ä*.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

quälm	gäunt	bälm	väunt	cälf	läunch	heärth
säunter	fläunt	psälm	äunt	päth	häunch	sälve
läundry	däunt	pälm	jäunt	läth	läugh	piäno
häunt	cälm	täunt	hälf	bäth	wräth	hä

(Other words may be added to this list.)

Let the ear be trained to catch the correct shade of vowel sound as heard in *ärm* and *fäther*, and then secure the same sound in the above list of words. The only way to secure accuracy in the pronunciation of these doubtful words, is *frequent repetition*, until it becomes a *habit* to speak them correctly at all times.

The next vowel sound that suffers at the hands, or rather the tongues, of most people, even those liberally educated, is the short Italian *ä*. This vowel is exactly the same sound in *quality* as the long Italian *ä*, but less in *quantity*, i. e., the vowel in *äsk* is sounded the same as the vowel in *ärm*; the only difference is that the former is shorter than the latter.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

quäff	mäss	mäsk	dräft	äfter	cäst	pästör	tränce
chäff	gräss	fläsk	shäft	äsp	väst	fäst	slänt
stäff	läss	täsk	räft	räsp	mäst	dänce	pänt
cläss	cäsk	bäsk	äft	gäsp	läst	chänce	chänt
päss	äsk	wäft	däft	häsp	päst	glänce	gränt

(Other words may be added to this list.)

To acquire the correct vowel quality in the pronunciation of the above words, a sustained sound of long Italian *ä* should be made, until the ear catches the precise shade of sound, then a much shorter sound of the same quality should be made, and used in the pronunciation of the words. Strict attention to the quality of vowel sound used, and frequent comparisons with the long-drawn Italian *ä* sound, and frequent repetition of the above list of words are all the directions and cautions needed to enable any one to pronounce these frequently used words correctly.

The *ä* in *cäre*, called by some orthoepists the medial *ä*, by others the circumflexed *ä*, is a vowel frequently misarticulated, especially in certain localities. We have noticed that the Irish, as a rule, give it the sound of long *ä*, while

the colored population of our country, with rare exceptions, give it the sound of Italian *ä*. Observe it is neither *pärent* nor *pärent*, but *pärent*; neither *häre* nor *här*, but *här*.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

stäre	fäiry	thäre	scärke	scäre	räre
shäre	pärent	läir	späre	beär	sweär
chäir	teär	här	weär	däre	märe

In this list of words there are three that seldom are pronounced correctly, viz., *pärent*, *scärke*, *scäre*. In pronouncing this list of words avoid giving the vowel the long *ä*, or the Italian *ä* sound.

The tilde *ë* and *î*, or perhaps a better name the *waved ë* and *î*, is one of the most delicate sounds in our language, and one that is frequently and generally mispronounced. The error in the pronunciation of this vowel is in making it like the *û* in *ûrge*; thus, we are accustomed to pronounce *tërm* as though it were spelled *tûrm*.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

vërge	hërd	pëarl	fërn	lëarn	gïrl	fïr
ërmine	stërn	sërvant	përsön	përt	first	mirky
përch	bërth	përfëct	gërm	dïrt	quirk	bird
supërb	ëarnest	cërtain	sërmön	mïrth	gïrd	sïr
nërve	mërcy	kërnël	vërsë	dïrk	bïrch	birth

(Other words may be added to this list.)

The *ë* in *tërm* is a more delicate, and closer sound than the *û* in *ûrge*. The soft and hard palates are brought closer together, and the whole surface of the tongue is lifted nearer the roof of the mouth. Do not pronounce *hërr* like the first syllable of the word *hurry*, or the word *sïr* as the first syllable of *surround*.

I find that most speakers are troubled by a few words that take the long *oo* as their vowel; for example, *boot*, *root*, *hoof*. As a rule, we are apt to shorten the quantity of the long *oo*, and as a corrective the following words ought to be pronounced frequently:

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

hooft	rööt	röof	fööd	rööd	rule
rumor	rue	gruel	truce	croup	woof
ruin	routine	true	bouquet	boot	soon
rural	cruel	prune	recruit	canoe	fool
ruthless	Bruin	prudent	brute	woo	smooth

What we have said about the long *oo* may be repeated with much more emphasis in the consideration of the short *oo*. There is no vowel sound in our language that is so generally and grossly abused. With very few exceptions we hear it sounded as though it were short *ü*; thus, *bükk* for *book*, *cük* for *cook*, etc. Pronounce frequently the following words, and give to the short *oo* the same *quality* that you hear in the long *oo*.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

böök	stööd	bröök	pööll	(pull)
töök	hööd	cröök	fööll	(full)
nöök	wööl	sööt	cööld	(could)
röök	fööt	forsöök	wööld	(would)
gööd	höök	cöök	böösh	(bush)
wööd	shöök	cööper	pööt	(put)

The only difference in the long and short *oo* is in *quantity*. They are identical in *quality*.

A serious mistake will be made if we are led to believe

that some of the vowels in the above words are not short *oo*, but an obscure sound of *u*. The word *obscure*, as used by some orthoepists, is an extremely unfortunate one, because it destroys all standards of ascertainable truth in pronunciation. What is obscure to one may not be so obscure to another, and hence all standards which should define the sound to be given to the vowel are completely broken down. We see no higher motive in the use of the word *obscure* than an easy and comfortable way to get rid of difficulties.

The diphthong long *ū* has always proved a stumbling-block to the most of our public speakers. According to the best orthoepists it is equivalent to the sound of the consonant *y* and *oo*; thus *ū*=*y+oo*. The only way to prove this is to make the sound of *y* and *oo* in rapid succession and blend them; or we may say that *u*=*y* in pronunciation. Here the *y* forms the initial part of the diphthong and the *oo* part. When the long *ū* stands as a syllable by itself, we experience no difficulty in hearing the diphthongal sound; thus, *ed-yoo-cate*, *yoo-nite*, etc. We never in such cases think of dropping the *y* part of the diphthong, and saying *ed-oo-cate*; also when long *ū* does not form a syllable by itself, but is found in combination with certain consonants we always hear the initial *y* and the sound of *oo*; thus, *mūte*—we never hear the *y* suppressed and the word pronounced *moot*; we never hear beauty pronounced *booty*, *cūte* pronounced *coot*, or *pūre* pronounced *poor*. The trouble in pronouncing this diphthong occurs when any of the following consonants, *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s* happen to come before a long *ū*; thus, we are apt to pronounce *dūty* as though it were spelled *dooty*—i. e. we make the long *ū* in such cases equal to *oo*; but it is equal, as we have shown, to *y+oo*. The question then to be answered is this, Why do we suppress the *y* part of the diphthong whenever *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s* happen to come before a long *ū*? Simply because *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s* are made in the fore part of the mouth by the tip of the tongue and teeth, and the *y* part of the diphthong is made by the palate. We see plainly that to pass from the fore part of the mouth to the palate is the greatest possible distance in the articulative machinery, hence it is easier to pass from *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s*, to a *oo* sound than to take up the intermediate *y*. The rule then in all cases where *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, *s* precede the long *ū* is this: always introduce the sound of *y* as the initial part of the diphthong, with this added caution that it be given with as slight a sound as possible to avoid affectation.

A LIST OF WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

dūel	dūbious	dūke	dūde	dūty	dūe
endūre	verdūre	nātūre	institūte	tūbe	Tūesday
tūmor	tūmult	tūne	lūbricate	lūcid	Lūcifer
lūdicrous	Lūke	lūminous	lūre	nūde	nūisance
nūmerous	neūtral	new	assūme	sūit	lūte
altitūde	dūpe	blūe	dūal	sūpreme	sūpine

This entire discussion may be put to a wise and practical use by securing a piece of card-board 30 x 15 inches, and writing the words for practice in vertical columns. The board should be hung on the wall of the study room, and the words printed or written large enough to be seen at a considerable distance. The words should be repeated several times a day until ease and accuracy in their pronunciation is secured. It will require patience and industry to break up long established habits of mispronunciation, but the plan suggested is the simplest and surest method to accomplish it.

FORM OF CHART FOR PRACTICE.

Long Italian *ā*.

quālm	sāunter	lāundry	hāunt	gāunt	flāunt	dāunt
cālm	bālm	psālm	pālm	tāunt	vāunt	āunt
jāunt	hālf	cālf	pāth	lāth	bāth	lāunch
hāunch	lāugh	wrāth	heārth	sālve	piāno	hā

Short Italian *ā*.

quāff	chāff	stāff	clāss	pāss	māss	grāss	lāss
cāsk	āsk	māsk	flāsk	tāsk	bāsk	wāft	drāft
shāft	rāft	āft	dāft	āfter	āsp	rāsp	gāsp
hāsp	cāst	vāst	māst	lāst	pāst	pāstor	fāst
dānce	chānce	glānce	trānce	slānt	pānt	chānt	grānt

Medial *ā*.

stāre	shāre	chāir	fāiry	pārent	teār	thēre
lāir	hāir	scārcē	spāre	weār	māre	beār
dāre	rāre	sweār	scāre	cāre	fāre	scārcely

Curved *ē* and *i*.

ērmīne	pērch	supērb	nērvē	hērd	stērn
bērth	ēarnest	mērcy	pēarl	sērvant	pērfect
cērtain	kērnēl	fērn	pērson	gērm	sērmon
vērse	lēarn	pērt	dīrt	mīrth	dīrk
gīrl	fīrst	quīrk	gīrd	bīrch	mīrky
fīr	bīrd	sīr	bīrth	smīrch	smīrk

Long *ō*.

hōof	rumor	ruin	rural	ruthless	root
rue	routine	cruel	Bruin	roof	gruel
true	prune	prudent	food	truce	bouquet
recruit	brute	rood	croup	boot	canoe
woo	rule	woof	soon	fool	smooth

Short *ō*.

bōok	took	nook	rook	good	wood
stood	hood	wool	foot	hook	shook
pull	full	could	would	brook	crook
soot	bush	put	forsook	cook	cooper

Long *ū*.

dūke	duel	dubious	endure	tumor	ludicrous
numerous	altitude	verdure	tumult	Luke	neutral
dupe	nature	tune	neuter	luminous	new
blue	dude	institute	lubricate	lure	assume
dual	tube	lucid	nude	suit	supreme
due	Tuesday	Lucifer	nuisance	lute	supine

The more popular phase of pronunciation, of which we spoke at the beginning of this article, should not be passed by without some words of criticism and advice. A large proportion of the words, which we have seen submitted for tests in pronunciation, have been those that are seldom used, or practically never used. The exercise to be of the highest educational value should only include words in current use. We must seek to lift pronunciation from the low level of the puzzle to the higher ground of useful knowledge. It is worse than a waste of time to ask any one to learn the pronunciation of words they never use themselves, and never saw before they were presented for pronunciation. Again, great care should be taken not to condemn a pronunciation, because it is not the pronunciation in your dictionary. Perhaps on investigation you will find just as weighty authority approving it as you found condemning it. The only safe and useful thing that can be done in this matter is to prepare a list of common words usually mispronounced, and in the correct pronunciation of which the authorities are substantially agreed.

LIST OF WORDS.

CORRECT PRONUNCIATION.

abdomen	ab-dō'men	etiquette	ēt-ī-kēt'
alias	ā'lī-as	excursion	ēx-cur'shūn
accent	āc'cent (noun)	forehead	fōr'ēd
accent	āc-cent' (verb)	gooseberry	gōōze'bēr-ry
acclimate	āc-clī'māte	gaseous	gāz'ē-ūs
address	ād-drēss' (n'n & v'b)	halibut	hōl'ī-būt
almond	ā'mūnd	hypocrisy	hī-pōc'ri-sy
amenable	a-mē'na-ble	illustrate	il-lūs'trāte
apricot	ā'prī-cot	inquiry	īn-qui'ry
aspirant	as-pīr'ant	integral	īn'tē-gral
ay	ī (meaning yes)	jugular	jū'gū-lar
aye	ā (meaning always)	javelin	jāv'līn

CORRECT PRONUNCIATION.	
apparatus	ăp-pa-ră'tus
booth	booth (th vocal)
bellows	běi'lūs
benzine	běn'zín
blatant	blā'tant
breeches	brich'ěz
brooch	brōch
brigand	brig'and
clangor	klāng'gor
coquetry	cō-quě'try

juvenile	jū'ven-il
legislature	lěg'is-lā-tūre
matron	mā'tron
morphine	mōr'fín
nasal	nā'zūl
opponent	ōp-pō'něnt
protestation	prōt'ēs-tā'tion
peremptory	pěr'ěmp-tō-ry
quickenings	quīck-nīng
rapine	răp'ín

CORRECT PRONUNCIATION.	
carbine	căr'bīne
construe	cōn'strue
clique	clěēk
doth	dūth
dost	dūst
designate	dēs'ig-nāte (hissing s)
docile	dōs'īl
dishonor	diz-hōn'or
enervate	ē-něr'vāte
equation	ē-quā'shūn
resources	rē-sōurce'ěz
recess	rē-cěss'
reasoning	rěz'ning
suffice	sūf-fiz'
seine	sēēn
sinécure	sī'ně-cūre
truculent	trōō'cū-lěnt
truths	truths (th aspirate)
tirade	tī-rāde'
version	věr'shūn

STUDENT LIFE IN PARIS.

BY F. M. WARREN, Ph. D.

The American student who visits Paris for the purpose of passing a year in the shades of its academic cloisters, is led by instinct, on arriving at the St. Lazare station, to direct his course to the famous Latin Quarter. Once on historic ground a sheltering roof is his first concern. A worthy landlord is not hard to be found who suits his hospitality to the size of the applicant's pocket-book. It may be a room in the fifth story, on the court, at twenty or twenty-five francs a month, a location not favorable to air or sunlight. For him who demands luxury, a second-story front may stand ready, the price of which varies from sixty to seventy francs a month. Those whose lot is "neither poverty nor riches" find in the sliding scale of the intervening floors convenient accommodations and proportionate upholsterings. Most desirable are the quiet houses on the placid side streets and a room facing some massive public building which can shelter no midnight roisterers. Here the earnest seeker after wisdom dwells peacefully and economically.

The question of subsistence in Paris has many solutions, and experience soon determines what is most advantageous to the circumstances of the individual. For fifty centimes the landlord will provide every morning a cup of coffee or chocolate, a dab of butter and a roll. Or the student may satisfy his wants in a creamery or small restaurant with four sous of chocolate, milk, or coffee, and two sous of bread, which elements he combines into a kind of soup. Later in the day, if he follows the custom of the natives, he will lunch frugally on a couple of boiled eggs served with bread, or, if he desires, he will have a meat lunch at prices varying from one to two francs. It is to be admitted, however, that many of the students pass over breakfast and only after three hours of class, taste their first meal of the day. Those who do not wish to be dependent on what chance may offer, by means of a spirit lamp and milk furnished by the landlord, prepare their own breakfast and even, when hard pushed, their lunch. For dinner the whole Latin Quarter seems agreed to give itself rendezvous at the restaurants, and to dine either at a fixed price—four meager courses with wine and bread—or by order. All the restaurants take boarders for lunch and dinner, at rates which average, for the best, about ninety francs a month. Thus shelter and food can be had, with a certain degree of comfort, at prices somewhat exceeding those of the same accommodations in America. Germany, not Paris, is the region of cheap living.

But when the days of winter come, the lack of proper means of heating and the high price of coal, delivered by hodfuls, bring a sudden end to the secluded life of the toiler. The race for good seats in the libraries and lecture-rooms begins. There appear then as competitors the vagrant of the streets, the retired pensioner, the man of disap-

pointed ambitions, himself perhaps formerly a student, whose threadbare frock-coat you always find nearest the library register or propped up in the corner of the comfortable public class-room. It is the National Library in the morning or afternoon, behind the Palais Royal, the Ste. Genèviève library in the evening, nestling under the protection of the lofty dome of the Pantheon. And when the latter is closed for the night the genuine student and the winter refugee return sadly to their cheerless mansards, preserving carefully in their garments the last whiffs of hot air, until by the flickering candle-light they creep between the cold sheets and shivering draw around them the hangings of the bed.

To the uninitiated then there is nothing which distinguishes student-life in Paris from that of the city at large. In his houses, at his meals, even in his libraries, the scholar rubs against the clerk, the functionary, the man of leisure. And, indeed, until recently the very organization of the schools favored this intermingling. The old University of Paris, which had given the city its principal fame in the times of scholasticism, when in the Rue du Fouarre on mats of straw the beggar students debated with the masters, or under Philip Augustus and Louis IX. were the terror of the inhabitants with whom they fought many a bloody skirmish, had in process of time lost its prestige and even its form. It dissolved into the faculties of arts, sciences, law, medicine, and theology. For the students there was no bond of union either in name or in fact. Yet the old tradition persisted, the inconveniences of the new system increased as the demands of modern instruction multiplied, until finally in December, 1885, under the administration of M. Goblet, and after a prolonged discussion in the faculties, the decree was issued which organized the general council of the schools and officially re-established the University of Paris.

The higher education in France is the care of the state. Consequently the lectures of the titulary professors are open not only to students of both sexes and all nationalities but to the general public as well. The unfortunate influence of the mixed audience on the lecturer is seen in the tendency to rhetoric and witticism, to the extent that as a rule the serious scholar gains but little from those who are in fact the ablest men. The real work of preparation for the various examinations requisite to the conferring of degrees is done in the so-called *Conférences* of the Sorbonne, the institution which represents the faculties of arts and sciences. These exercises are subject to restrictions. The student who wishes to attend them presents himself on certain days before the registrar of the particular faculty and, after the submission of a certificate of previous study satisfactory to the

governing body, receives a card of admission bearing the stamp of the faculty, the name and address of the student and the latter's signature. This card he can be required to produce at any moment. To insure a record of attendance he is obliged to sign a register at each recitation. No fees or tuition are required.

Frankly, our quarters were not sumptuous in the old Sorbonne. By a dark winter's morning to rush from one's chamber to a creamery, or perhaps to omit that formality, and thence to a row of hard benches without backs, where the means of support were the writing-desks in front, in a room whose gas jets were few and which had not, at eight o'clock, recovered from its nightly chill, demanded no little heroism. The most luxurious class-room, hastily patched together in a rear court to provide for the growing faculty of arts, boasted of straw-seated chairs and separate writing-desks. Certain audience-rooms in the Collège de France—an institution entirely distinct, now practically a sinecure for the most eminent professors, and open to all comers—dispense with even the writing-desk, and the luckless hearer, crooked over on his hard board, envies the happy professor in his arm-chair, as he delicately stirs the lumps of sugar in the customary glass of water.

Before the Minister of Public Instruction had decided to rehabilitate the University of Paris, as an institution, the students had felt the need of a solidarity of interests. Accordingly, in the year 1887, was conceived the *Association générale des étudiants*, with headquarters on the Rue des Écoles. This society, from a modest beginning, has become the most notable feature of the Latin Quarter. The object of the association is to promote union among the students of the various faculties, to welcome and aid all new-comers, and to foster a genuine university life. It was no easy matter to awaken interest in the undertaking. The number of students in Paris is enormous. At the medical school there are upward of four thousand, of whom some nine hundred are foreigners, over one hundred being Americans, and more than one hundred of the total being women, the latter mainly Russians. The law school is naturally more homogeneous, and is attended by some three thousand candidates. The departments of arts and of sciences number about a thousand each in the restricted courses, to which must be added those who attend the public lectures of the Sorbonne, the advanced work of the École pratique des Hautes Études, the Collège de France, the École des Chartres, the School of Mines, the École libre des Sciences Politiques (from which, by the will of the founder, women are excluded), the school of Oriental Languages, the various schools of theology, and other minor institutions. An estimate of twelve thousand students for all the foundations would probably not be excessive. To enlist sympathy and obtain adherents from among these scattered groups was exceedingly difficult. I remember we were six, whom the process of mutual selection separated from the vulgar crowd at the beginning of the academic year in December, 1884. (The École des Chartres and some few courses begin in November but the full work of the University opens in December, to suspend again in June; July and August are devoted to examinations for degrees, and to passing the candidates from the *lycées*.) We all belonged to the faculty of arts; three Frenchmen from Franche Comté, a Swiss from Neuchâtel, a German from Berlin. When the subject of an association was broached to us it was the German alone who responded. Faithful to the student traditions of his fatherland he enthusiastically aided the promoters of this enterprise of good fellowship. The rest of us stood back distrustfully and never in fact joined. Now the *Association*

générale has become a flourishing and useful auxiliary to student life at the capital, and it was its delegates who held the place of honor in the procession at Bologna.

We then had no comradeship as students? There was no especial current running through our daily life which made our union other than that of half a dozen young men, whom chance had thrown together in the midst of a great city? From the ordinary standpoint of college sentiment, I think there was not. Our purposes were literary. We were all zealous in our work. Therefore our conversations represented our minds, and our amusements were, as a rule, on the same plane. Our favorite walks led to the inner boulevards, whose denizens afforded the philosopher of our company abundant material for disquisitions, or to the gardens of the Luxembourg. When dinner was over and the literary columns of the *Figaro*, the *Temps*, and the *XIX. Siècle*, with occasional selections from the fifth French Protestant Gospel, the *Journal des Débats* had been carefully weighed we usually awaited the hour of retiring in the Sorbonne library, open only to candidates for degrees in the evening hours. Or had books grown dull it would be voted to attend some play at the *Théâtre français*. Half an hour's waiting in line and a franc at the office would put us in some coveted seat in the amphitheater, where in spite of the air and heat neither Molière nor Augier ever had more attentive listeners nor the skilled artists of the *Comédie Française* more vigorous or impassioned critics. Music also had its claims on us. Among the theaters the *Grand Opéra* alone could tempt us, and but rarely. But to compensate, none were more assiduous in the long lines at the concerts of Colonne and Lamoureux, and none more ready to repel the plebeian tastes of our rivals, the dry goods clerks, popularly termed "Calicos," even to necessitate the presence of the *gendarmes* to quell the disturbance. On high days, at Carnival, Mid-Lent, or during the fair at the gate of Vincennes, we always were represented. At Epiphany we had a feast by candle-light, of which the leading dish was *pâté de foie gras*. On the fourteenth of July we watched the medical students dance with the populace before the chapel of the Sorbonne. For politics we cared little. We were at bottom Republicans, tinged with Orleanism, and we supported the administration, though we did not frown on street fights at socialist funerals. For "*monomes*" we were too dignified. They were for the recent arrivals from the *lycées* who celebrated their emancipation from nurse escort by public demonstrations. Yet I confess we enjoyed the sight of a thousand and more human beings in single file, lock step, winding up and down the Boulevard St. Michel and inclosing unhappy mortals in the folds of a giant boaconstrictor.

While we carefully avoided sectarianism and, like all Frenchmen, considered St. Bartholomew an anniversary which points a lasting moral, we had our favorite preachers. Among Protestants it was M. de Pressensé in the little desolate church of the Rue Madame. Among Catholics it was Père Monsabré at Notre Dame, or, in another vein, Père Hyacinthe in his striking service at the Rue d'Arras. Church-going, however, is not a specialty at Paris, and, like the citizens, the students frequently plan excursions for that day to Meudon and St. Cloud, or to some meet of the gymnastic societies, in which Paris now abounds, and which are closely connected with the *Ligue des Patriotes*. Many of the students belong to this latter organization, but it has no actual connection with the University, nor are societies or fraternities found among the students alone. And herein lies the great deficiency in the Paris schools. There is no community of interests. Though gymnasiums abound in

the city they are private affairs and the professor of physical culture and hygiene is unknown in the land. Yet a nucleus for future unity exists, which is furnished by the courses of study themselves. It is the body of scholars whose expenses are defrayed by the state, as a result of competitive examinations. To this body formed at Paris are properly attached the scholars sent to the University by the old academies of the provinces of France, as that of Besançon or of Lyons. These men are the *élite* of the student world. They are bound by both interest and honor to maintain a high standard of scholarship and deportment, and it is from them and from the class leaders of the *lycées* that the *École Normale* and the *École pratique des Hautes Études* are mainly recruited.

While the student of the Latin Quarter is thus left practically to his own devices he is no drone. Especially true is this of the candidate for the *agrégation* and *licence* degrees of the Sorbonne. The number of recitations, at least three daily, which he is required to attend, develop regular habits of study, and the severity of the final examinations, where perhaps the majority of the candidates fail at the first trial, is a constant goad and an ever-present terror.

The evil reputation of the Quarter cannot be attributed to

the faculties sheltered by the Sorbonne. For this the students of law and medicine, who seek to increase their marriage portion by a diploma, without any subsequent professional intention, are to some extent responsible. But chiefly is the dissipated and turbulent element recruited from among foreigners and young Frenchmen of leisure, who crowd together in this section of the city on account of its traditional immunity from police surveillance. When, in 1885, the troubles along the Danube retained at home the various peoples of the Slavonic kingdoms, peace brooded on charmed wing over the Boulevard St. Michel.

For the present, France is behind in the intellectual race. Awakened from the lethargy of the Second Empire by a national calamity, she saw and recognized her inferiority. To overcome the prejudices of the past, the conservative and routine tendency of her people to replace worn-out methods and antiquated tools by those adapted to the needs of the age, will be the work of decades. Yet the progress already achieved, the largeness of spirit with which new projects are pushed forward, and, more than all, the willingness to learn from other nations, will render each year more and more available the material for study which Paris contains to a degree that far surpasses any other city.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

BY SHELDON JACKSON, D. D.
U. S. General Agent of Education in Alaska.

For over eight hundred miles British Columbia lies along the Pacific Ocean; but its coast line in and out the many bays, inlets, and channels, and around its numerous islands would measure as many thousand miles.

It possesses one of the most remarkable stretches of inland navigation on the globe, remarkable for its bold shores, deep water, numerous channels, innumerable bays and harbors, abundance of fuel and fresh water, and freedom from the swells of the ocean. The great outlying islands of Vancouver, 300 miles long, and Queen Charlotte, 170 miles long, and many lesser ones form nature's gigantic break-water to protect these thousands of miles of inland waters. The labyrinth of channels, around and between the islands, that are in some places less than a quarter of a mile wide, and yet too deep to drop anchor; the mountains rising from the water's edge from one thousand to eight thousand feet and covered with dense forests of evergreens far up into the perpetual snow that crowns their summits; the frequent track of the avalanche cutting a broad road from mountain-top to water's edge; the beautiful cascades born of glaciers, or the overflow of high, inland lakes, pouring over mountain precipices or gliding like a silver ribbon down their sides; the deep, gloomy sea-fiords cleaving the mountains far into the interior; the beautiful kaleidoscopic vistas opening up among the innumerable islets; mountain-tops, domed-peaked and sculptured by glaciers; the glaciers themselves sparkling and glistening in the sunlight, dropping down from the mountain-heights like great swollen rivers, filled with driftwood and ice and suddenly arrested in their flow,—all go to make up a scene of grandeur and beauty that cannot be adequately described. Happy are they who can see all this and more in the famous tourist trip to Alaska.

The marvelous combination of mountain and water scenery along the coast is equaled, if not excelled, by the wonderful upheavals of the mountains of the interior,—for hundreds of miles an endless succession of sharp peaks and deep valleys,

of precipice and gorge and rocks, some of which are still being carved into strange forms by the great ice sheets which cover them.

Far up into these almost inaccessible mountains during the gold excitement the Government built a wagon road at the expense of two and a half million dollars. Into, over, and under these same mountains the Canadian Pacific Railroad finds its way to the Pacific Ocean. Seven thousand men were engaged three years in building sixty miles of railway along the Cañon of the Fraser. Some portions of the work cost \$300,000 to the mile.

In these gigantic mountains very appropriately are born gigantic rivers. From them flow the mighty Yukon, which thousands of miles away is steadily at work filling up Behring Sea; the Liard and the Peace after draining an empire, three thousand miles away, through the great Mackenzie, are lost in the Polar Sea; and the rushing, impetuous Fraser and the queenly Columbia.

British Columbia is rich in minerals. From 1858 to 1888 the gold production was \$51,455,668. From Nanaimo on Vancouver Island 153,000 tons of bituminous coal are annually shipped to San Francisco. The output for 1888 was over 400,000 tons.

On Taxada Island, twenty miles from the Comax coal fields, are great masses of magnetic iron, assaying 68.4 of iron and having a low percentage of phosphorus and other impurities. Copper exists in a number of places, the most promising ledge, so far found, being on Howe Sound. Salt springs also abound.

The mountains and coast are covered with dense forests of valuable timber. Eighty per cent of this is Douglas fir, ten per cent red cedar, and the balance yellow cedar, spruce, white and yellow pine, hemlock, maple, alder, and cottonwood. An experienced lumberman from Michigan, who has been examining the forests, says that he found a tract of 55,000 acres of white pine averaging 100,000 feet to the acre, and a large tract of red cedar covered with trees varying

from ten to twelve feet in diameter, with trunks 150 to 200 feet to the first limb. He made a careful estimate of the timber standing on one acre and found it nearly 600,000 feet. The chief seat of the lumber interest is Burrard Bay, where the Hastings mill cuts 15,000,000 feet annually. This mill has shipped a timber 28 inches square and 110 feet long.

In the same neighborhood is the Moodyville saw-mill which cuts nearly 20,000,000 feet annually. Logs have been brought to this mill measuring over seven in diameter at the butt, and five feet in diameter 130 feet from the butt. The export of lumber for 1888 was \$235,913.

The rivers, bays, and inlets swarm with fish, among which are salmon, halibut, herring, oolachan, black and rock cod, sturgeon, flounder, smelt, trout, etc.

In 1887 there were twenty-one salmon canneries, which sent to the market 205,088 cases of four dozen one pound cans to the case. The total number of salmon caught, including those salted in barrels, was 1,804,600. The catch of sturgeon was 198,000 pounds, halibut 149,000 pounds, herring 65,000 pounds, oolachans 20,500 pounds, and trout 15,000 pounds. The salmon pack for 1888 was 177,305 cases.

In addition to the catch of food fish there were made 68,500 gallons of refined oil from the dog fish. There were also fur seal taken by British Columbia boats to the value of \$236,500.

While much of the land is rocky and unsuited to cultivation, there are valleys in the mountains and on the islands which have an arable soil suited to the production of the fruits, grains, vegetables, and flowers of the temperate zone. Victoria on the south end of Vancouver Island is noted for its beautiful flower gardens and abundance of choice fruit.

The climate stretching across a country over 700 miles north and south and from the coast 500 miles inland among the mountains is very different in different sections. In a general way, however, it may be said to be moist and mild on the islands and coast, and drier and colder in the interior. The coast region warmed by the Kuro Siwo, the great warm current of the Pacific Ocean, has a winter climate as mild as Virginia in the United States. The mild, invigorating, and delightful climate of Victoria makes a pleasant resort.

Being a comparatively new country and until the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway (November 1885) difficult of access, the white population is small—from 40,000 to 50,000. To these may be added 10,000 Chinese and 30,000 Indians.

The admirable school system provides that wherever there are fifteen children between six and sixteen years of age within a radius of a few miles, a school-house shall be built, the salary of a teacher provided, and all the incidental expenses. These expenses are paid directly from the provincial treasury. The annual school report of 1885-6 gives 87 school districts, and 4,471 pupils enrolled; 2,481½ average daily attendance, at a cost of \$79,527.56.

The Indians, as a rule, are industrious and self-sustaining. They are in demand at the lumber mills, salmon canneries and fisheries on the coast, and in herding cattle and horses in the interior. They are in all stages of advancement from barbarism upward, in proportion to the time they have been under the influence of the missionaries.

British Columbia unlike the other provinces of Canada does not recognize any native ownership in the soil, which they and their fathers for generations have occupied and claimed. The future of the race in British Columbia is darker than in any other section with which I am acquainted.

The leading denominations engaged in their evangelization are the Church of England, the Methodists, and Roman Catholics.

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The missions of the Roman Catholics are mainly in the villages on the west coast of Vancouver Island. They have contract schools with the Indian Bureau of Canada at Kyuguat, Clayoquat, Hesquiaht, and St. Marys. Where they have attempted missions by the side of the Protestants they have failed of success.

The Church Missionary Society of London opened mission operations in British Columbia as early as 1857, when Mr. William Duncan arrived at Fort Simpson. This was the first mission to the natives of the North Pacific and proved a remarkable success. As in 1887, eight hundred of the converts of this mission sacrificed the property they had painfully acquired during the thirty years they were coming up from barbarism to a Christian civilization, abandoned their homes and went out empty handed to a new land for conscience sake, the attention of the Christian world has been called to them.

From Metla Kahtla as a center have sprung these six missions: at Kincolith, established in 1867, Messatt, 1876, Alert Bay, 1878, Hazleton, 1880, Kitwanga, 1882, Aiyanish, 1883, and Kitkatla, 1887. These stations in 1888 were provided with ten European missionaries including three laymen. They reported 237 native communicants, 97 baptisms, and 309 children in school.

The schools at Massett, Kincolith, and Alert Bay are assisted by the government. This North Pacific group of missions is in charge of Bishop John Ridley.

Mr. J. B. McCullagh at Aiyanish reports the following interesting case:

Agwilakha, a powerful Niska chief, was the principal leader of the heathen party on the Nass River. One morning last summer while Mr. McCullagh and his men were at work on the new mission buildings, they were startled by cries of distress proceeding from the forest. Soon Gwinpazqu, Agwilakha's boy, was seen running and crying out, "*Haiawa! haiawalth babi* (Alas! alas my father). My father lies on yonder mountain stricken with *lokqu* (hemorrhage.) He has eaten nothing these eight days and is faint and dying. *Haiawa! haiawa!*"

A rescue party was immediately sent out and in a couple of days he was brought in apparently just alive. A bed was made for him in the school-house, restoratives applied and after hanging between life and death for three days, he commenced slowly to mend.

His first request upon gaining a little strength was that some leafy branches be placed around his bed and a few pictures of Scripture subjects that he had seen at the mission be hung upon them where he could see them. He then requested the people to pray for him. In faltering tones he expressed deep penitence for the past and desire to lead a new life if he should get well. "Death," said he, "overtook me on the mountain. It struck me low. My blood made red the snow for a long way, while crawling to my little hut on the stream. I remembered Shimoigiat lakhage (God). I besought him. 'O Shimoigiat,' I said, 'hold me up,' and he did. Four days and we found the little hut by the stream. My flesh was black. I knew it meant death. 'Wait my son,' I said to Pazqu, 'until my end has come, then hasten to your brother Muguiliksqu. Tell him where I lie, that he may come and take me away and bury me.' Two more days, I still breathed. Then I sent Pazqu to you and soon came the men and carried me on their shoulders. Blessed are they! 'I shall recover,' you say. Perhaps so; but Agwilakha is dead; he died on the mountain; with mine own eyes I saw him die; his old life ended there. Henceforth my life shall be like a thing lent to me; He who lent it shall own it. Great has been His

mercy to me; the heart of a child has come to me. My speech is finished."

Among the remarkable men in the Methodist missions on the North Pacific coast is the Rev. Thomas Crosby. In the spring of 1863 Mr. Crosby commenced teaching an Indian school at Nanaimo. In six months he was able to preach in the native language; in 1869 his field was visited by an extensive revival and hundreds among the Flathead Indians were brought to Christ. His great success attracted the attention of his denomination so that when a picked man was wanted to go to the tribes in the extreme north he was selected, and in the fall of 1874 he settled at Port Simpson on the edge of Alaska. He and his wife threw themselves so unreservedly into the work, that a strong and influential center has been built up at Port Simpson and twelve other mission districts have been formed covering many hundreds of miles of territory.

The annual report of 1886 mentions stations at Port Simpson; on the Fraser at Nicola, Nass, Port Essington, Skidegate, Kit-a-meet, Kit-wan-silh, Kit-lach-tamux, Bella Bella, Hy-hies, Wer-keeno, and Bella Coola.

At these stations were six white and five native male missionaries besides a number of white lady teachers. They report 1,102 native communicants. The schools at Port Simpson, Port Essington, Bella Bella, Nanaimo, and Tak-

alsap (Nass River) are subsidized by the government.

In addition to a home for girls at Port Simpson, Mr. Crosby has recently opened an Industrial training school for boys. While on the Nass River, Mr. Greene also opened an orphanage.

During the winter of '77 and '78 a revival came with great power at Port Simpson. Many flocked in from neighboring tribes, and upon the shores of the Nass where for ages had been heard the rattle and wild howling of the incantations of the medicine men, was heard for the first time the song of redeeming love. The Nass people wanted a missionary of their own and in response to their earnest entreaties Mr. Crosby secured the Rev. Alfred E. Greene. Upon his arrival at their lower village the whole population turned out to welcome him, rejoicing that the day was breaking upon the Nass people, after a long dark night. Flags were hoisted on trees and poles, and cannons fired to express the universal joy. An old chief as he leaned upon his cane said, "I am getting old, my body is getting weaker every day. I am obliged to have three legs to walk with now (referring to his cane). This tells me I shall soon die. I don't know what hour I shall be called away; I want to hear about the Great God, and I want my children to be taught to read the Good Book; I want them to go in the new way; we are tired of the old fashion."

WOMEN'S CLUBS IN LONDON.

BY SUSAN HAYES WARD.

The club, in the modern acceptance of the word, has not been viewed with friendly eyes by wives and mothers. Though it offers many advantages to its members, it is not an unmixed good; and ardent supporters of club life do not afford the most shining examples of the domestic virtues.

So long as a club was merely an association of men bound by some common sympathy of literature, politics, religion, or the like, who met at stated seasons to dine or sup together, to discuss topics of common interest, and to aid their common cause, no one in sympathy with the object aimed at could complain of such an association, unless its dining and wining were carried to an excess.

But clubs like the Kit-Kat, and others of literary or political fame, are not what are now popularly known as clubs. They are rather societies or associations. The club of to-day implies a house or home for the club as costly in its appointments as can be afforded, with comforts and luxuries of all sorts, barbers and bath-rooms, French cooks and faultless waiters, with newspapers, magazines, and reading rooms, with apartments for eating, drinking, smoking, card and billiard playing, and sleeping even, if need be. Such a club supplies home comforts to many homeless men, and address, if not a local habitation in the city, to its country members. There the member can write and receive letters, make appointments with friends, and entertain them; there he can read periodicals for which he cannot afford to subscribe; there he can show courtesy to acquaintances whom he does not care to invite to his house; and there he can find a retreat from an uncomfortable or disorderly home.

The disadvantages of club life are patent, but need not be pointed out. When it was proposed, a score of years ago or more, to start a Woman's Club in New York, and Sorosis sprang into existence, though such women as Alice Cary and Mrs. Croly were ready to stand as sponsors for it, there was a cry raised against the unwomanliness of the thing,

and men indulged in threadbare jokes about women who aped the enjoyments and employments of men. But Sorosis has not been a club in this acceptance of the term. It has no club house and it does not afford the accommodations of such a house to its members. It simply gives an opportunity for women of similar tastes to meet regularly to discuss matters of interest to themselves, and to promote good-fellowship by lunching together, and by a grand annual dinner. This is about all that women's clubs in America amount to. They are intended for mutual helpfulness and to bring together people of the same tastes.

In some of our large Western cities, Milwaukee for example, there have been women enterprising enough to assume the responsibilities of a club house, but as a rule, American woman can hardly be deemed clubbable in the masculine acceptance of the word. It was a man who remarked that "women do not eat expensively enough, nor drink wine enough to make clubs rich."

But women's club rooms do not need to be keyed to so high a pitch of magnificence as do those of men. Rooms can be adapted to feminine requirements at small expense as may be readily seen by visiting the various women's clubs of London.

The first women's club of London of which I have record was started in 1869. The idea of its founders was that women employed at home like servants or governesses had no special need of club advantages, but that homeless women required them; in fact, that "every woman honestly working for her living in a large town ought to be able to belong to a company of fellow-workers, and by so doing to command through this co-operation a pleasant sitting-room, light literature, and a cup of tea." Mr. Ruskin was much interested in this club, and at first it was made free use of by art students and other working women. This club was not really controlled by its members, but was a benevolence

on the part of a higher to a lower class, and it gradually degenerated into a cheap eating-house which failed in its effort to compete with the cook-shops of the neighborhood. There are always enthusiasts ready to start clubs of this kind. One of the most successful now in operation in London is the Soho Club and Home, 59 Greek St., Soho Square, which is under the special supervision of the Hon. Maude Stanley, and has about thirty clubs affiliated with it, under the name of the Girls' Club Union, in all of which working girls are brought under the refining influence of educated and cultivated ladies. But these, though an interesting study, are outside the scope of this paper.

There are at least two important clubs in London whose privileges and offices are shared by men and women alike. Their aims are so dissimilar that there is no chance of their ever jostling each other. The first of these, the Albemarle, has been in existence about eight years. It is aristocratic in its tone, and its annual subscription, five guineas, is too much for a poor woman's purse. It has a large and pleasant house on Albemarle Street, where everything is conducted with the gravest decorum, and where no member would think of addressing another without an introduction. Members can entertain here, guests of both sexes, and as many English people of late have given up their town houses and have restricted themselves to a few weeks' yearly stay in London, a club like the Albemarle gives them a much better opportunity to offer a good luncheon or dinner to a guest than does the best of lodging houses. Meals at the Albemarle are served daintily and at reasonable rates. Lady members also make use of the club as a place where they can interview servants, or send parcels when shopping. This club is simply for the convenience of its members, with no ulterior view to making them better acquainted with each other, or of promoting any cause. Its membership and offices are about evenly divided between men and women.

Quite removed from this in style, appointments, and purpose, is the Junior Denison Club, which has rooms in 15 Buckingham Street, Adelphi, just off the Strand, on an historic site which contains all that remains of the famous York Palace.

It has rooms up two flights of stairs in this building. The object of this club is "to promote friendly intercourse and frank discussion between men and women interested in social and industrial questions, and to encourage study and investigation." Its secretary, Mr. Price, is connected with the Charity Organization Society. Indeed, all the active members of the club seem to be engaged in some form of work for the poor. The club rooms are open daily, except Sundays, from noon till ten in the evening, and a few conveniences like writing paper, newspapers, tea, coffee, are provided for members. "On the first Wednesday of each month (excepting August and September) a paper is read on some subject of practical concern and is followed by conversation. It is the intention to avoid anything like formal debate."

On the other Wednesday evenings of the month the club rooms are reserved for the use of men but no subject is set for discussion. The list of members numbers about one hundred thirty, half of them being women. The entrance fee to the Denison Club is five shillings, and its annual subscription, twelve shillings, sixpence. Unlike the Albemarle, the Denison Club affords its members no social prestige, and it also has a definite purpose aside from that of supplying the ordinary club conveniences.

The three clubs specially worth mentioning which are exclusively for women and under their sole control are the New Somerville, The University, and The Alexandra.

From the scrap-book of the New Somerville Club and the printed accounts of its work and scope therein preserved, I draw the following statements: The original design of the Somerville Club, as planned in 1878, was to be of benefit to working women in London; and many ladies interested themselves in the formation of the club and joined it themselves that they might thus unite in one company women of different social positions. Its avowed object was to afford women interested in political and social questions some central place of meeting where opportunity would be given for serious discussion and the interchange of opinions and information. No admission fee was charged, and the annual subscription was only five shillings. This amount was so small that a large membership was necessary. The club was to be made convenient for ladies living in the country, and for ladies shopping; and it would secure for ladies a place in which to rest between their appointments in town, to write or to read, a pleasant place where friends could drop in and take a social cup of tea together, or converse freely without being interrupted by all the other members of the family.

By December 1880, they had twelve hundred members. They did not, however, become properly a working women's club. Clever, educated women were brought together, and the subjects discussed were such as to interest them rather than the ordinary working woman. Still it welcomed women of all classes and interests, and it included rich and poor, conservatives and liberals, women's rights advocates, and bright society girls. The educational element was strongly represented; lady members of the London school board, head mistresses and governesses swarming in, in shoals. The rooms were kept open week days and Sundays, till ten in the evening, and were freely used by the members. But the expenses of the club could not be met by the fees of membership, and in 1887 it was thought best to wind up affairs and start afresh. This club was the first of its kind and it had done good work, too much to let it willingly die, so from its ashes rose the New Somerville which carries on the work of the old, but on a firmer financial basis, as it has an admission fee of ten shillings and an annual fee of the same amount. Its pleasant entrance, 231 Oxford Street, is just opposite Peter Robinson's where women most do congregate. A tessellated pavement leads off from the street. Mounting the stone stairway, up another short flight, past an outer desk covered with circulars, educational, political, or domestic, notices of classes, of teachers of all sorts open to engagements, of the Shakspeare class that meets in the lecture room, and of the papers appointed to be read during the season, you enter a cosy ante-room. Your guide inscribes her name and yours as her guest on the members' day-book while you are looking around. A bright-faced, well-dressed young woman sits at the little desk sheltered by a screen. Your guide looks in the rack for letters. The postman runs up with a handful just at the moment, and the young lady distributes them alphabetically. A boy comes in with a parcel for some club-member who is shopping to-day; and the package is laid away in the set of boxes provided for this purpose. There are pictures on the wall, and the table is covered with papers. A clever arrangement of partitions allows the rooms to be thrown into one, at will. The doors can be removed, and the walls which are of zinc and resemble blinds, can be rolled up out of the way. You enter the drawing-room. At some of the tables ladies are taking afternoon tea and chatting pleasantly together, at others they are reading papers and magazines; all seem easy and at home. An inner room or library enjoins silence on all who enter. This is for quiet workers or writers. These rooms are light and cheerful, supplied with magazines, daily

and weekly papers, and books. Luncheons and teas, no dinners, are supplied from the rooms below.

The lecture room up stairs is suitable for classes, general meetings, receptions, and so on, and on great days when many are expected to be present, the zinc partition walls are rolled up, and the three lower rooms are thrown into one. The Provisional Committee numbers nearly twenty members, and candidates for admission to the club unless known to one of this committee are obliged to furnish references. This is the sole social restriction. Of the twenty-three rules of the club, the first reads, "The Somerville Club shall consist of women only," and to the fourth is appended this notice: "N. B. It shall be considered a point of honor not to black-ball any candidate on account of her opinions." At present the club consists of about seven hundred members. On the first Tuesday of every month there are lectures or debates in the club rooms which are given and attended by both men and women. One evening in the month they hold a debate open only to members. I have described this club more minutely because its methods and scope seem more suited to the needs of women likely to read this article.

The University Club, 31 New Bond Street, admits to regular membership the following members only:

- (1) Graduates of any University.
- (2) Registered Medical Practitioners of the United Kingdom.
- (3) Students or Lecturers who have been in residence for at least three terms at Girton or Newnham Colleges, Cambridge, or Somerville, or Lady Margaret Halls, Oxford.
- (4) Undergraduates of any University who have passed the Examination next after Matriculation.
- (5) Students who have passed the first Professional Examination of any Medical Corporation.

The entrance fee and annual subscription to this club are each ten shillings. The member who kindly gave me information when I visited the club room was also a member of the Albemarle. She magnified the social position which membership in either of these clubs gave one, as well as the great convenience they afforded to ladies whose male relatives would not permit them to go in the afternoon unaccompanied into any eating-house in the vicinity of Regent Street, but who, with the utmost convenience, economy, and respectability, could partake of the afternoon tea (indispensable to an Englishwoman), at their club. I observed no appearance of "strongmindedness" in the ladies seated in

the drawing room of the club. They did not even look overwhelmingly learned, and I doubt whether Mr. Punch would have recognized in any of them his typical female club-lounger, "latch-key in pocket and eye-glass on the nose," though why latch-keys and eye-glasses are essentially masculine possessions, Mr. Punch fails to explain.

The Alexandra Club, 12 Grosvenor Square, Bond Street, is for ladies only, with special emphasis upon the word "ladies." Its membership is supposed to be made up of titled women and gentlewomen, and it says with an air of exclusiveness, "No Lady is eligible who has been or would probably be precluded from attending Her Majesty's Drawing Rooms." The rules go on to say that gentlemen are, under no circumstances, admitted to the club. I have even heard it hinted that Buttons himself was dismissed when he reached the age of thirteen. The entrance fee to The Alexandra is three guineas, the annual subscription for town members is three, for country members two guineas. Six bed-rooms are provided for the use of country members, and two beds for ladies' maids. This is a proprietary club, the proprietorship being vested in a committee of six of its members who undertake all of the liabilities, and dispose of the payments made by members entirely in the maintenance of the club.

There are other proprietary clubs in London, notably the Ladies' Victoria, 3 Old Cavendish Street, frequented by ladies who live in the country or abroad, or by those whose houses in town are shut. It is designed for the convenience of well-to-do women, and in character it is not so very far removed from the private hotel.

Clubs of this sort, proprietary or otherwise, would prove of special convenience to that large class of American women who close their town houses in the summer. Ladies from Long Branch or Elberon come up to the city several times each month, on errands of some sort. Their homes are deserted, the swathed furniture looks ghostly in the darkened rooms, and the servant in charge has no dainty meal in readiness for the mistress, who, after accomplishing her business, eats a tasteless luncheon in some hot and crowded restaurant, and then waits at the railway station, till her husband is free to escape from his office and join her on the return trip. To such women, as well as to lonely workers in the great city, well appointed club rooms would be a comfort as well as a convenience.

A VIRGINIA PLANTATION.

BY C. W. COLEMAN.

Those years immediately preceding the Revolution have been denominated by a recent and competent writer, the Golden Age in Virginia. "It was a happy era," he continues, "care seemed to keep away from it and stand out of its sunshine. The planter in his manor-house, surrounded by his family and retainers, was a feudal patriarch mildly ruling everybody; drank wholesome wine, sherry, or canary, of his own importation; entertained every one; held great festivities at Christmas, with huge fires in the great fire-places, around which the family clan gathered; and everybody, high and low, seemed to be happy. . . . The Virginia planter was content to be left to live as he liked; to improve his breeds of horses, of which he was extremely fond; to attend races; to hunt the fox; to welcome everybody at his hospitable manor-house; to take his ease as a provincial seignior on his patrimonial acres, and to leave

his son to represent the family in the family home. If this state of things nurtured pride and a sentiment of self-importance, many virtues were also the result; the sentiment of honor, cordiality of manners, and an abounding hospitality."

This comfortable, easy-going system of life was not destroyed by the revolutionary convulsions and relegated to the limbo of tradition. The atoms composing it, disarranged by the great upheaval, gradually settled to their former juxtaposition, and the old life resumed its easy flow, not stagnating, losing somewhat, taking on somewhat, yet as a system of living remaining essentially the same. The steamboat, superseding or running in connection with the stagecoach, did not alter it; but simply afforded increased facilities for intercommunication. Then the first railroads began to feel their way through the state. After this came the

change,—for which there is no intention of holding the railroads directly responsible.

Thus Virginia plantation life of forty years ago has come to mean, to many personally unacquainted with it, a dominant class—indolent, arrogant, pleasure-loving, high-living; set off against a dark background dimly peopled by gangs of negro slaves, contriving somehow to endure their thralldom with seeming content, even merriment. Or foreground and background are made to change places, and lights and shadows shifted to suit the eyes contemplating the scene. Such, justly or unjustly, the impression in great part remains. However, it is the gracious work of time to bring matters such as these to their proper adjustment, a work which our era seems disposed to accomplish with marvelous celerity. It is the intention and desire of this paper only to be simply and quietly descriptive, in that much aiding toward the intelligent comprehension of an order that has changed and the new to which it has yielded place.

Not to take some particular plantation as entirely representative of the whole class, one may be supposed that will be fairly typical. It lies in tide-water Virginia, or, at farthest, in the Piedmont region, and has been in the family of the proprietor since the original royal grant. Its name is high-sounding, smacking of England, and is invariably appended as a distinguishing title to the name of its owner,—as William Byrd of Westover, Benjamin Harrison of Brandon, John Randolph of Roanoke; or to the surname only,—as the Pages of Rosewell. Estates forty years ago were large, though small in comparison with the enormous landed possessions of an earlier generation, when Robert Carter of Conotomian was lord of so vast a number of acres that he was known as "King Carter"; and John Bolling of Cobbs—Pocahontas' great-great-grandson—who, despite laws of primogeniture, could leave each of his five sons proprietor of several estates of such proportions that a tract of six thousand acres is enumerated, in the most incidental manner, among several passing to one son, and he not the eldest. So this supposed plantation contained some three thousand acres, a small average,—arable land, woodland, and meadow.

The manor-house,—a stout, dignified structure of English brick (doubtless of the best colonial make), square, two and a half stories in height with walls of great thickness and steep roof set with dormer-windows,—stands upon a broad lawn sloping to some river, with probably a small park, a remnant of the virgin forest, for a background. To right and left, flanking the main building and detached from it, or else connected with it by corridors, stand smaller buildings, known through some freak of nomenclature as "offices,"—one devoted to domestic uses, the other to the bachelor members of the family and gentlemen guests, and containing a billiard-room.

Beyond the limits of park and lawn,—both of which are most likely comprehended under the title of yard, which American usage has raised from its English low estate,—are the "quarters," a street of single story cabins built of logs chinked with clay and clapboarded, each with its garden-plot for vegetables, along with which grow marigolds, phloxes, cabbages-roses, and other hardy, bright-hued flowers. From one of the cabins float unctuous suggestions of the mid-day meal, which a negress in cotton frock and gorgeous "head-handkerchief" is preparing for the hands now a-field. The roadway between the rows of huts swarms with bare-legged little darkies, ostensibly under the care of old "Aunt Juno," who sits mumbling over her pipe and half-dozing before her cabin door. These amiable senile propensities have doubtless gained for her the reputation of being a

witch or conjure-woman. Here, too, if they have succeeded in eluding the maternal vigilance, are the fair-skinned, flaxen-haired children from the "great-house"; for to Southern children the quarters and their inhabitants possess the circumstantial fascination of forbidden fruit, especially if Aunt Juno's humor is good, when she will recount the plantation legends of Brer Rabbit and the other "varmints" (preserved by Chandler Harris in his "Uncle Remus"); after which to scrape the skillet with a bit of short-cake constitutes a repast which no feast in the great-house can surpass.

The interior of the manor-house corresponds to its exterior. A flight of semi-circular stone steps leads through an ample door-way into a lofty square hall wainscoted from floor to ceiling. The rooms also are square, high-pitched, wainscoted and large—four on a floor. From the second story descends a broad stairway with heavily carved mahogany balustrades and elaborate newel-post, giving exit through an archway also ornamented with carving. Antlers, guns, fishing-rods, etc., give evidence of the sportsman. The furniture is of massive mahogany or else of that spindle-legged variety named after Queen Anne; and on the walls of hall, drawing-room, and dining-room hang numerous family portraits. Some of these are works of art, since Sir Peter Lely, Sir Godfrey Kneller, Gilbert Stuart, and other celebrated artists painted them; and there are several of those soft crayon profiles of which St. Memin made a specialty.

Unquestionably the Virginia planter led a comfortable life, though not an idle one. Of that John Bolling, already mentioned, his son has left on record that "horses, dogs, hunting, fishing, good living, dancing, his wife and children were the life and soul of Mr. John Bolling! . . . which was, perhaps, pardonable in a man who was neither a gambler, a drunkard, nor a debauchee." Yet this man sat on the judge's bench and for thirty years in the colonial general assembly. So if to his successors of another century descended a disposition to take life with whatever of ease and comfort it might hold, there came also political aspirations, backed by a legal education, which found gratification in the state legislature, Congress, and yet higher positions. Born of generations of culture and refinement, they inherited the finer instincts of birth and good-breeding, and received a liberal education. There was always a library, large or small, composed chiefly of the Latin and English classics; but "it matters not how many but what good books you read." There were undoubtedly exceptions to this broad general rule; and it is trite to say that the rule is proved by them.

Perhaps the planter's home-life may best be characterized as an energetic leisure,—not a leisurely energy. In the early morning he would mount his horse, which always stood at the rack ready for his use, ride about the plantation, or such parts of it as were under cultivation; superintend and direct the work in progress or contemplation,—in short, oversee the overseer. Returning from this round, he would join the family circle, read prayers—a service attended by the house-servants as well as the family—and partake of a late breakfast, shortly after which he would again ride out upon the plantation. Such was the general routine of the planter's life, with modifications in individual instances; as in the case of the gentleman who, in very hot weather, for this second horseback tour, substituted a lookout-tower on top of the house, commanding a view of adjacent fields, where he would sit with a spy-glass under an umbrella—an equally effective scheme, until the negroes discovered that not infrequently after the hoisting of the umbrella nobody sat under

it. In another instance the master was always accompanied by a favorite dog, that, after the habit of its kind, appeared in advance of the horseman. At the cry of "Yon'r come Ponto!" idle hoes became possessed by a marvelous industry, and wagging tongues by the dumb-devil, to which an expression of amused consciousness gave the lie.

Writing from Virginia, Thackeray, in speaking of the negroes, says that it is almost impossible to pity them, since they seem so happy. Leaving aside the question of the rights and wrongs of slavery, it is undoubtedly true that the chief characteristic of the slave disposition was lightheartedness. Always laughter and song made accompaniment to work; and the songs of harvest-field and camp-meeting-ground,—monotonous chants, wild irregular melodies, often no more than weird rhythmical undulations of sound without words,—possess a subtle charm peculiarly their own. The man who had worked a-field all day thought nothing of walking miles at night to participate in a dance, avoiding the clutch of Satan so long as he did not cross his feet; or to attend a religious "revival."

Each plantation was a community in great part self-sustaining, with its own shoemaker, blacksmith, carpenters, weavers, seamstresses, besides the regular farm-laborers; the products of the plantation supplying material for food and raiment, and wood for fuel and building purposes, and there was always a preacher or exhorter, whose religious calling did not, however, exempt him from contributing to the material and temporal requirements of the community. Last, but not least, there was a fiddler, and there were banjoists innumerable.

As the master gave to the plantation his personal supervision, so within doors the mistress might always be found like Lucretia among her hand-maidens. How many soever the servants, with her own hands she washed the silver and glass and the more delicate china of the breakfast service, a custom still observed by many Virginia matrons,—and with better reason; her hand was skilled in fine needlework and cunning in the mysteries of cooking; whatever she did not do herself she knew how to direct, and her watchful eye was everywhere. Even that autocrat the old black "mammy" (heaven rest her soul!) was forced to acknowledge her superiority in the training of her children,—"fer, bless her sweet soul, ain't I done raised her fust!" Virginians owe much to their women, much that is high and noble,—and also to those old-time Virginia cooks, whom outsiders have learned to appreciate, now unfortunately fast becoming like the Koh-i-noor among diamonds.

There was always company on the Virginia plantation from early spring to late autumn, with a great family gathering and much merry-making at Christmas, the old English customs of the season having prevailed since the time of the first gentlemen colonists. A charming description of these festivities is given by Nelson Page in his story of "Unc' Edinburg's Drowndin'," and much valuable matter pertaining to plantation life in Virginius Dabucy's "Don Miff." In such volumes we may best hope for the preservation of these things, now fading to the traditional.

At or about Christmas-tide many masters gave to their slaves a week's holiday; and there is one on record who granted absolute freedom so long as the yule-log burned, whereupon the wood-chopper, selecting the trunk of a stalwart tree, treated it to a month's soaking in the swamp. Festivities in the quarters were of prolonged duration that year.

When the war came and the men had gone to battle, the management of affairs devolved upon the Virginia women; and they fulfilled the trust nobly. The endurance, the in-

genuity, the shifts resorted to by the women of the Confederacy for the necessities of life, were this the place to dwell upon them, would form an interesting chapter—and humorous withal—in war-time history.

The planter, laying down his arms, returned to his home, probably to find his house windowless, doorless, mutilated; his plantation a battlefield; the social system to which he had been born, in which he had been bred, shaken from its foundations, and lying about him in ruins. Of necessity it is difficult at once to accept loss and radical change un-murmuringly, recognizing in them the fortune of war; nor is it less than human that some should never do so, even while forgetting all bitterness. After the first sensation of bewilderment, consequent upon the result of the war, had passed, disclosing a full realization of the demands of the new social order, the planter with what heart he might, bent his energies toward adapting himself to them. This in many instances meant literally putting his own hand to the plow. Plantations were divided, small farms leased or sold from them, and even many of the old manor-houses, for generations in the families of their founders, after a futile effort to retain them, passed into alien hands, in some cases to be maintained in their quondam dignity, in others to fall from their high estate. Enough to say that of the larger landed-proprietors under the old *régime*, who thus found themselves forced to grapple hand to hand with the problem of existence, some succeeded, some failed.

Leaving this partially and briefly described Virginia Plantation, which has been supposed as typical of a class, it may be best to glance at the present condition and prospects of particular estates of the same grade, now historic homes.

Probably the stately manor-house of Westover, on the James River, formerly the seat of the Byrd family, from whom it passed before the war, retains as much as any other the semblance of its pristine self, looking across its velvety lawn beyond its three wrought-iron gates elaborate with heraldic emblems toward the river and over broad cultivated fields. True, within, all trace of the original proprietors has disappeared, but the unostentatious hospitality, the flavor of an old Virginia home, remain. The present proprietor, a scientific as well as a practical farmer, is conservative in this, while in the management of the plantation availing himself of whatever of modern invention improves upon old methods, as witness the extensive tracts reclaimed from the marshes for cultivation.

At Shirley, the manor-house erected at the close of the seventeenth century, the genius of the founder yet remains. In the neighboring burial-ground he lies beneath a massive tomb; within the house his portrait hangs among those of his descendants, for Shirley has come from him in direct line to the present proprietors—women, under whose active management the plantation wears the comfortable garment of industry's weaving. A charming spot it is, in this new America, with its Old-World air, its fine trees and sloping lawn, its prim rose-garden and boxwood hedges, about all of which the James River curves. "This is England," said an English visitor; "place and people."

Brandon, in the Harrison family since its foundation, the war left in semi-ruin. Bullet-marks and scars of war remain; but the old mansion amid its smiling fields, less extensive than of yore, is again the home of comfort if not of opulence. So, without dwelling upon instances in which change and desolation reign where once were wealth and cultivation, the list might be lengthened, including also those equally important, though less pretentious, frame country-houses, rambling, picturesque, and delightful. But

the life there and the people were and are the same ; and the people, not the houses, give to the locality its character.

We have been hearing much in late years about the New South, as though it were something entirely disassociated from the Old. This is partly true, partly fallacious ; but

"If we tried

To sink the past beneath our feet, be sure
The future would not stand."

In agriculture, as in everything else, the New South is the higher element, the bone and sinew of the Old, which has adapted itself—and in a time surprisingly short—to the conditions of a changed social order, though its energies may be, and probably are, bent toward ends, which, under the old system, it was either unnecessary or undesirable to reach.

And it must be borne in mind that the Virginia plantation, even were it commensurate with its former metes and bounds, is no longer of the old importance, nor indicative of the same affluence in the owner. The requirements of life are more numerous ; and the Great American Desert, like the Floridian fountain of Perpetual Youth of which the Spaniard dreamed, upon investigation has been found non-existent—or, else, the desert has blossomed like the rose

and become a powerful competitor in agricultural markets.

As the word plantation by Southern usage departs from its original English significance, so in Virginia the name clings to what are properly large farms. But by whatever name known, the old-time charm hovers about them and the life there ; for, whatever else has been lost, "the sentiment of honor, cordiality of manners, and an abounding hospitality" yet remain. So the people being in all essentials the same, the past cannot be an echo only. The "quarters" are no longer so populous a community, for many reasons a matter for congratulation ; but the sound of the banjo is still heard there, and through the heat-haze of June come the weird cadences of harvest-songs, for the singing of which the peculiar *timbre* of the negro voice alone is perfectly suited, filling them with a wistful suggestiveness which a higher order of music often fails to reach.

Taking it all in all, a Virginia plantation is a pleasant place to visit, whatever it may be to live there ; and despite the proverb about farmers and grumblers, there may be found many in Virginia who would repeat with telling emphasis Cowley's line—

"God the first garden made, and the first city, Cain."

THE SECRET SERVICE OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

BY MRS. CARL BARUS.

The need of the existence of such an organization as the Secret Service Corps was not pressingly felt till the nation in the opening years of the Civil War was pushed to the financial measure of issuing its own paper money and of inducing the various state banks to co-operate with the national policy by becoming purchasers of the Government bonds. The Government then held such bonds in the name of the banks and issued to them notes for circulation to the amount of 90 per cent of the market value of the bonds they had purchased.

Before that time the banking system of the country was in a deplorable condition, and banking consciences were elastic. If a set of dishonest men desired to circulate paper money they had but to start a bank openly, and were at liberty to issue as many notes as they could persuade the public to accept. This circulation of "wild-cat" money, as it was called, made it very difficult for a bank note issued in one section of the country to be accepted in another. Now, all banks which circulate notes have their deposit of Government bonds as vouchers for their honesty, and the bank notes issued by the local banks are all printed at the Government Bureau of Printing and Engraving. This assumption of a national fiscal policy led in '62 to the establishment of the Bureau of Printing and Engraving, and in '64 to the organization of the Secret Service for the detection and arrest of counterfeiters.

Before entering into some description of the details of the processes employed by counterfeiters or the mention of a few of the notable arrests made by the Secret Service, it may be well to outline the precautions Government takes in the making of its money, and the difficulties it endeavors to strew in the pathway of deceit.

The finer work printed on all notes and Government securities is engraved by hand, and the work, especially the portrait cutting, is of such a high order of excellence that there are but few engravers in the country capable of exe-

cuting drawings of equal merit. This, of course, immensely reduces the number of possible counterfeiters, as poor portraiture quickly shows the falsity of a bank note. This expedient has well attested its worth. With but one exception, to be noted later, no draughtsman employed on Government money has taken advantage of his technical skill for dishonest purposes. The delicate geometrical traceries to be found on the borders and beneath the numbering of notes is put upon the plate by a mechanical process. The possible eccentricities of the combination of lines is its safeguard ; it being not only difficult but almost impossible for even the original designer to so re-adjust the complex parts of the machinery as to reproduce the same lines. It has been the policy latterly of the Bureau to introduce machine work wherever it seemed feasible and prudent. Just at present there is a discussion taking place before a Congressional committee as to the wisdom of such a course. The chief of the Secret Service strongly objects to *any* machine labor, either in the engraving or printing of the notes, and claims that counterfeiting has become more successful since the introduction of such processes.

When fully engraved, the plates are surrendered by the Bureau of Printing and Engraving to the Secretary of the Treasury who details special officers for their charge. As there are nearly 4,000 national banks, the custodian of plates has almost that number of bank plates to guard, as well as the note and security plates of the Government's own issue. In the basement of the building of Printing and Engraving sit the grim warders of this potential treasure, shut off from the intrusion of public visitors by a formidable barrier ; behind them during the working hours of the Bureau may be seen the heavy open doors with their massive bars and intricate combinations of locks and time checks which close the burglar and fire-proof vaults. When plates are needed by the Bureau for printing, a requisition is made to the Secretary of the Treasury, stating not only what plates are

needed but the amount of money to be printed from them, and all plates are returned at the close of each day.

Having hedged about the first process in the making of notes with so many safe-guards, similar zealous watchfulness is carried forward through all the stages of their growth. Paper of a special quality is prepared by contracting paper manufactories in New England. The paper, though made in their mills, is under the direct supervision of Government officials during its manufacture, who are held responsible that all imperfect sheets and even clippings are at once remacerated, so that not a fragment but what is sent to the Secretary of the Treasury can be taken from the mills. To be found in possession of paper similar to that furnished Government, however innocent the holder may be of fraudulent intent, is a serious offense. Two qualities of paper are made for Government: that for the printing of notes and securities is of the finest, strongest grade of linen with water lines run through the sheets so that each note will be barred by two faint parallel lines. This has been found to be a more satisfactory distinguishing mark than the threads of fiber scattered irregularly over the sheets, which formerly served this purpose. The paper for revenue stamps is a poor, cheap quality of a light green tint, which will readily tear. Its easy destruction is desirable since it then cannot be removed from taxable property after it has once been pasted on.

When the Bureau of Printing and Engraving desires to print money it requests the Secretary of the Treasury, who keeps the blank sheets, for a specified number and renders an account to him of the exact face value the paper will represent when printed; the Bureau is then charged with that sum of money and must later deliver to the Treasury an amount that tallies with its statement. Employing as it does some 900 laborers in the different divisions of its work, the Bureau has evolved a most careful and accurate scheme of espionage which enables it to trace and locate at any step of its progress the loss of a single dollar. So minutely and cautiously is every detail of the process marked off for supervision and responsibility that in a long series of years but one employee has been rash enough to test the thoroughness of the plan of check and counter-check. In that one instance, a young woman slipped into her pocket a sheet of \$5 notes from the pile she was numbering; but fifteen minutes elapsed between the theft and its detection. This example will give a notion of the scrupulous care with which every movement is watched. From its entrance into the Bureau as a blank sheet of paper to its exit as redeemable money, a bill receives over fifty countings; is more than fifty times checked off as tallying with the required sum. This intricate system has been of slow growth and development as the practical workings of the Bureau in the twenty-seven years of its existence has shown the necessity of making each step of the process mutually observant and mutually detective.

The Secret Service Corps of the Treasury Department does effectual work in restraining the circulation of fraudulent money and in bringing offenders to trial. Naturally, it withholds from the public the methods it employs to detect criminals, and refuses to more than hint at the extent of its workings. It is impossible to learn just how thoroughly it has honeycombed the country with its agents, but from the frequency of its arrests, which average about 550 a year, one can imagine that, argus-eyed, its alert vision sweeps piercingly over the great money marts and detects the first symptoms of evil design. There is a weirdness and strangeness in the mysterious silent watching and working of this secret force, which is in odd contrast to the openness

and candidness of all the other institutions of our democracy. Even the employees of the Service are as ignorant as the public of the full workings of their Bureau and only know that certain specified duties are theirs; whether other agents are detailed to their district or they remain alone on watch is not disclosed to them; but it has happened in the history of the Service that one Government servant has arrested another, leaving it to be suspected that the Chief of the Service provides himself with means of following up his associates.

An applicant for employment comes usually recommended by some political worker, but the strongest political backing will secure a candidate but a three months' trial; if, at the end of that time, he has not shown a natural aptitude for the peculiar calling he has adopted, he is summarily dismissed. We may well believe that in the tortuous and crooked paths through which it has to track out counterfeiters, the Service has found, occasionally, "it takes a thief to catch a thief." Though men of doubtful reputation have aided sometimes in the pursuit of offenders, the final detection and arrest have been taken from such hands, as a jury would be loath to condemn a man upon the testimony of a former culprit. The sentence of criminals of this class varies from six months to thirty years imprisonment, but the full penalty of the law is seldom exacted. Repetitions of the offense are of frequent occurrence, showing that the counterfeiters believe the risks taken are of less consideration than the greatness of the possible gain to be won.

It is believed that counterfeiters like most other criminal classes inherit the special aptitude and tendency for their illegitimate profession; but the past history of prisoners of this description is especially difficult to trace, as they almost invariably have assistants and co-workers whom it is for their best interests to shield, so that as a rule they are unusually reticent. Mrs. Peter McCarty, the wife of one of the most noted counterfeiters arrested by the Service, gave undoubted evidence of transmitted tendencies. Her trial (she was accused of being her husband's assistant) brought to light the fact that her father and mother both had been sentenced for similar crimes and that her sister, then living, was the wife and partner of a well-known counterfeiter. In fact the whole stock from which she sprang seemed to have been contaminated with evil propensities. The state of Indiana which gave birth to this family has repeatedly committed to prisons and to pauper asylums the numerous progeny of this one tribe who have spread themselves like a blight over her civilization.

Peter McCarty whom the Service arrested in St. Louis was one of the best known cases in its annals. His unusual manual dexterity enabled him to carry on his adventures alone, and to dispense with the danger arising from taking associates into his confidence. His wife served in what is known in technical parlance as a "a pusher"; that is, when the money was finally ready, she attempted to pass it into circulation. Such an office, of course, requires a clear head and an unpretentious appearance. The couple had made excellent headway with a series of finely executed \$20 bills before being suspected and captured.

The necessity for preparing and pushing the bank note with great adroitness usually leads to a combination of interests among counterfeiters. One of their number supplies the capital to organize the affair,—buy the press, experiment with the paper, and purchase the engraver's outfit, etc. The printer must be a first-class specialist in his line, and the engraver equally proficient in his to assure any measure of success. The most important arrest ever made by the Service, from the fact that it secured the largest sum of

money taken at one time, was accomplished by the seizure of Doyle, a member of such a partnership. His two associates though well-known to the Service as such, could not according to certain technicalities of law be sentenced without more evident proof of their guilt; but both of the men, Brockway and Smith, were soon imprisoned for offenses of a like nature. Of this noted band, Brockway was the capitalist and organizer of the scheme. He was known to the Service as a former culprit and the detectives believed they had reason to suspect he was concerned in the circulation of \$100 counterfeit notes then being pushed into the market. He was closely watched, and his occasional interviews with Doyle placed that person under the ban of suspicion, so that it was deemed worth while for a special detective to follow Doyle from New York to Chicago, whither he made arrangements to go. As he stepped on the platform in Chicago, he was arrested and an examination of a travel-worn and unpretentious hand satchel he carried, disclosed, wrapped up in a soiled undershirt, a package of six per cent Government bonds, to the amount to \$210,000. The surprise of this arrest was mutual, the detectives not being in the least prepared for such a *denouement*. Doyle was on his way to operate in the Chicago Stock Exchange, where on a previous visit he had successfully launched a few tentative experiments. The counterfeiting was so good that the Chicago banks at first refused to believe the deception, but dispatches from the Treasury in Washington showed that bonds bearing the number engraved on the captured securities were not in circulation. Smith who engraved the plate from which the bonds were printed, was at one time in the employ of a firm who made Government money on contract. He had years before engraved a six per cent plate, and as his right hand had lost none of its cunning, he was able to duplicate with all the nicety of a professional artist the required fine work. His case furnishes the only known instance of advantage taken of knowledge gained in government service.

The possession of an engraved plate is so dangerous and compromising that the most ingenious measures are taken to hide it. In the above cited instance it was discovered buried in the sand on a desolate stretch of beach on Long Island. The pictures of these three noted counterfeiters are to be found among the collection of photographs which form the Rogues' Gallery of the Secret Service. Brockway had the slim, lank figure, long neck and sloping shoulders of the conventional Yankee. One would be apt at a hap-hazard guess to place him among the shrewd speculators of the Stock Exchange. Smith has the weighty and profound bearing of a German professor; while Doyle has so essentially a negative countenance that one would not suspect him capable of any intrigue or ruse.

Most of the note counterfeiting is done by men of American parentage.

The Italians with their deft, artistic fingers can easily make a plaster mold from a coin, and only well-trained eyes can detect the fact that a coin has received its impress in a mold rather than from an engraved die. It is almost impossible to estimate how extensively counterfeit small coins (nickels and dimes) are circulated, as it is seldom deemed worth while to present so small a value for expert testimony. The Government secures about \$500,000 annually in counterfeit bank notes. The silver dollar is one of the most common ventures with coin counterfeiters. Antimony, a metal that sells at a few cents a pound, is the usual substitute; by alloying it with a little bell metal, a coin can be produced which will give the familiar metallic ring and bring its weight to within ten grains of that of the silver standard,—a deficit so slight as to be unnoticed without careful examination. A silver coating by electro-plating is the finishing touch given such base imitations, and with the ring, weight, and appearance of silver, it is indeed not surprising that so many are found in circulation.

Gold is more difficult to duplicate as there is no metal but platinum, itself very expensive, which can successfully represent gold. Brass is used, but is almost sure to be discovered.

Among the rogues' pictures is found the placid face of a Chinaman, whose special phase of deceit almost seems to require the patience and philosophic calmness of an Oriental mind for its successful accomplishment. He was arrested for the crime known as "sweating"—a trick which with clipping and debasing has an historical record as the frequent measure of royalty in times past to secure a revenue. "Sweating" consists of shaking together gold coins for a sufficient time to make them yield up a portion of their substance. Expert statement says the Chinaman found \$10 a day by the process.

Men who put their consciences to sleep so thoroughly as to be able to take up with a counterfeiter's trade, are, as a rule, ready to follow up deceit with greater crimes. The sharp, barbarous looking knives, and instruments of torture and cruelty, as well as the tools of professional burglars, which are so frequently found on the persons of counterfeiters, prove they are prepared for the most brutal measures.

Among the confiscated possessions shown by the Service are some of the most innocent conceits of aspiring advertisers—collar boxes, for example, filled with *papier maché*, coin—devices to deceive the eyes merely and most obviously free from evil intent. But even such a playful reproduction of the Government stamp is a punishable offense. The majesty of the nation's seal may not be lightly touched.

OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS FOR THE C. L. S. C.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL.

First Week (ending April 8).

1. "Chemistry." Chapters XX. and XXI.
2. "Zoölogy." Pages 85-106.
3. "Gossip About Greece." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. "Agesilaus." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. Sunday Reading for April 7. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Second Week (ending April 16).

1. "Chemistry." Chapters XXII. and XXIII.
2. Zoölogy." Pages 106-124.
3. "Greek Art." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. "Sunday Labor." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. Sunday Reading for April 14. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Third Week (ending April 23).

1. "Chemistry." Chapters XXIV. and XXV.
2. "Zoölogy." Pages 124-152.
3. "Color in the Animal World." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. "What Inventors have done for Farming." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. Sunday Reading for April 21. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Fourth Week (ending April 30).

1. "Chemistry." Chapters XXVI., XXVII., and XXVIII.
2. "Zoölogy." Pages 153-178.
3. "The Care of the Insane." THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Sunday Reading for April 28. THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

FIRST WEEK IN APRIL.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations about fishes.
2. Table Talk—Current events.
3. The Lesson.
4. General discussion—The Fisheries Question.
Music.
5. Paper—Fossil fishes.
6. Experiments with nitric acid given in the "Chemistry"
p. 174 seq.
7. Readings—"The Angler's Wish." By Izaak Walton.
"The Angler." By T. B. Read. "The Pleasure Boat."
By R. H. Dana.
8. Debate—Resolved: That the weakest elements in any
form of association are more to be feared than the strong-
est. (Base the affirmative of the argument upon the
action of nitrogen, and proceed to human society.)

SECOND WEEK IN APRIL.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations about birds.
2. Table Talk—News items.
3. The Lesson.
4. Paper—The great diamond fields of the world.
Music.
5. Readings—"The Stormy Petrel." By Proctor. "To a
Water Fowl." By Bryant. The Belfry Pigeon. By
Willis. "To a Skylark." By Shelley.
6. Paper—The Tunnels of the Alps.
7. Contest—The circle is to be arranged as in a spelling-
down match. Beginning on page 294 of the "Zoölogy"
the leader is to put out the names of the "Examples"
given in the right-hand column, the first one being
"Amphioxus." The one to whom it is given is to
place it in the "Class" to which it belongs, "Acrania."
The species, genus, and order may be omitted. The
leader skips around in the list of words, the lesson ex-
tending through the birds. Those failing to answer
correctly must be seated.
8. Debate—Resolved: That the running of Sunday trains of
cars should be prohibited by law.

SHAKSPERE DAY—APRIL 23.

"We must be free or die, who speak the tongue that Shakspeare spake."
—Wordsworth.

A study of the play of "Troilus and Cressida." The fol-
lowing selections are good for readings in character: Act
I., Scene 3; Act II., Scene 2; Act III., Scene 3; Act IV.,

Scene 5, beginning with the entrance of Hector, armed, and
the Trojans; Act V., Scenes 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, and 11, omitting
the closing part in which Pandarus appears. Papers could
be written on the Story, the Sources, and the Characters of
the play, and a debate on the following question would be of
interest, Resolved: That Shakspeare treated Homer with
indignity in writing this irony of the great siege of Troy.
A game of enigmas composed entirely from the play would
form an interesting closing exercise. Let about half a dozen
be appointed to prepare these. As each presents his, let one
write down the numbers and the letters, while the others
open their copies of Shakspeare, each at a different act, and
search for the word described.

FARADAY DAY—APRIL 18.

"Depth in philosophy bringeth men's minds about to religion."
—Francis Bacon.

PROGRAM.

PROGRESSIVE CONVERSATION.

8.00. The Boy Faraday.	8.30. Plagiarist or not?
8.05. Apprenticeship.	8.35. A Popular Lecturer.
8.10. Some Successful Reporting.	8.40. Friends and Home Life.
8.15. First Travels.	8.45. The Sandemanians.
8.20. Lady Davy's Pride.	8.50. A Patient Man.
8.25. In the Royal Institution.	8.55. Science without a Faraday.

The rules for an entertainment of this kind are very
simple. The hostess or committee of arrangements presents
each guest with a program to which a small pencil should
be attached by a ribbon. Partners must be chosen for each
topic and their names written on the blank line below each.
All the blanks are to be filled before the conversation begins,
and two engagements cannot be made with the same person.
At the close of the five minutes a signal is promptly given
by a "time-keeper," and the changes are quickly made.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."—"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."—"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
FOUNDER'S DAY—February 23.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
FARADAY DAY—April 18.
SHAKSPERE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.

AGASSIZ DAY—May 28.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first
Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chau-
taqua.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first
Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St.
Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after
the first Tuesday.

METHODS OF CONDUCTING CIRCLES.

Innumerable questions arise when the subject of conduct-
ing a local circle is broached. Shall it be formal or informal?

Shall the exercises be kept down to the lesson or be made
general, including the lesson, music and elocution? Shall
"set" programs or the conversational method be employed?

Shall it be all work or work and play? Shall profit or amusement take the lead? All are legitimate questions and only examples of many which might be asked. The experience of well-to-do circles is one of the safest guides in determining what to do; and for the help of the new-comers the Scribe has selected from the mail-bag a number of the most fully reported methods used in different circles. From them two things are to be learned: First, a circle should do work which stamps it as Chautauquan, not such as a correspondent describes in a recent letter when he says, "Last winter I visited a circle in the Old Bay State and certainly had I not been told before, I would never have imagined from the program, that it was composed of C. L. S. C. readers. It was *all outside work*. The only familiar thing about it was that occasionally I thought I caught sight of the magazine. I asked if they never discussed the Required Readings and was answered, 'Oh, no, everybody is supposed to do them at home.' " Second, it should adopt the method for this work, which is adapted to its membership, which will bring the members into sympathy, hold them together, and insure regular attendance. It is mainly by attention to these two principles, that the following circles have been made so successful.

CANADA.—Starting in Canada, as is our custom, several suggestive items are found in the circle at LONDON SOUTH. The meetings are opened with a vesper service after which the minutes are read. Business disposed of, each member rises and recites a quotation from the author for the evening. The lesson is the first item. The circle finds that by taking it up first, more questions are answered. The members are divided into two classes and a teacher appointed for each subject. Formerly the teachers were appointed for a quarter but the present method is considered more satisfactory. A program of essays, character sketches, debates, and music follows the lesson. Occasionally the celebration of a Memorial Day or a lecture breaks the customary order.

MAINE.—While the Direct Line of PRESQUE ISLE usually follows the magazine programs, it keeps an executive committee to arrange for music and to provide changes, as desired. For instance, for the Plato Symposium the Direct Line held an Olympian party at which all the gods and goddesses appeared clad in suitable raiment and provided with songs, poems, and papers, befitting their characters. An examination of a number of programs from the Clio of MECHANIC FALLS shows close (but not exclusive) attention to the Greek readings. The Clio has caught the spirit which is worth so much to a circle—the public spirit—and it debates such questions of practical interest as this, Resolved: That it is for the good of the community that Mechanic Falls be incorporated. The Knickerbocker of SABATTUS might be called the Interrogation Point. The questioning method is employed almost exclusively and with excellent results. A Question Box to which each member brings a question on any subject is a regular and enjoyable feature, and a Questioner whose duty is to ask one fourth of each month's *Questions and Answers* and one set of questions from *The Question Table* is a member of the Board of Officers. The Knickerbocker introduces occasional papers to vary the exercises.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A wise method of handling the different subjects in the course is employed by the Argus of MILFORD. Thus the chemistry has been given into the charge of two members who are to perform the experiments and present subjects as they think best. A stimulating element in the method of the Aurelian of HOPKINTON is calling for a report from each member, of the reading he has done since the last meeting. The circle is studying Greek as well as the Greeks. Two studies are

taken at a time by the Lakeside of MEREDITH; a committee in charge of them assigns lessons and appoints a questioner on the same. Memorials Days are noticed by quotations from the author, given at roll-call and by a selection read. The *very life* of the Lakeside is said to be the four '88's who graduated last summer at Weirs.

MASSACHUSETTS.—At NORTH MIDDLEBORO, the Kalmia, a circle of five takes up one book at a time and has it read aloud at the meetings, the members taking turns. The *Questions and Answers* are studied and recited. Informal meetings over the lessons are held at NORTH LEOMINSTER by the Moncosnock; free questioning and discussion prevail. The Pioneers of NEW BEDFORD make a strong feature of roll-call, each person responding with items which they gathered through the week. Discussion of the ideas or facts presented is allowed. Prayer opens every meeting of the NEWTON Circle. The program is made up by a committee, of papers and readings on the lessons, varied by debates, competitive drills, and talks on current events. A musical director is one of the executive force. At LUNENBURG a meeting is held every four weeks. It is opened by prayer and song. Roll-call is responded to by quotations and the *Questions and Answers* on the book in hand (one book at a time is the rule) follow. Essays sometimes are read. An hour and a half is devoted by the Raymond of LYNN to the lesson, the program being prepared by a committee. The rest of the evening is given to games, discussion, and sociability. A member failing to perform an assigned part is compelled to pay a fine. The Raymond occasionally introduces a program for pure entertainment and with good results. In October such a one was presented. The vacation experiences of the members being written up for the first part: Seven girls at Lakeview, the White Mts. and Franconia as viewed on foot, Gettysburg and Washington, Lake George and Au Sable, Plymouth and its History, Camp-Life in the Forests, and Yachting Experiences were on the program. A Halloween celebration closed the evening. Three features are always found on the program of the Hurlbut Circle of EAST BOSTON; the half hour talk, the concert recitation, and the roll-call, beyond these the committee is unlimited as to what it shall furnish. This year matches conducted like the old fashioned spelling-match, the subjects usually being the *Questions and Answers*, have been regular features. The line of Required Readings is followed closely by the Kimball of EAST WEYMOUTH. The members are notified of the program by its publication in the local paper. The Lummis of STONEHAM chooses an entertainment committee of three on the third Monday evening of each month. On the fourth Monday the committee reports a program for the next month. A social meeting is usual each year, to which a circle from a neighboring town is invited. Three months is the term of the program committee of the Winthrop of CHARLESTOWN; the magazine suggestions are used as a base for the circle work; one person is appointed to conduct each week's lesson. This order is broken at times, thus a trip to Greece filled one evening this winter.

RHODE ISLAND.—Thorough work has been the aim of the Thesaurus of PROVIDENCE, and every means is taken to accomplish this result. The pronunciation of Greek names is learned by dividing the class into two divisions and trying to pronounce each other down. A dictionary committee notes all blunders and corrects them at a following meeting. A magazine club has put all the leading monthlies within reach of the circle. A series of illustrated lectures, following the line of the Greek readings, has been begun by a well-qualified lady. The hard work is varied by an annual fes-

tival; this year an appropriate Greek accent was given it by the use of the Greek costume by circle-members.

NEW YORK.—The Whalen Circle of MACOMB is a kind of evening school in its thoroughness and attention, but the Whalen is public-spirited; each year it unites with the town school in giving a strawberry festival whose proceeds go for books to be used by both organizations. This generous work is spreading the fame of Chautauqua, and children are growing up familiar with its ideas.—The Home Reading Circle at RANDOLPH has a full program arranged by a committee for each evening. The members are notified of this by filling out what is called a "partial program blank." The numbers in which all the members are expected to take part are the roll-call, table talk, and lessons. The blank has a line on which the subject of each is written, and if a special performance is expected from a member, this is also written in the blank. The date and place of meeting are included. This gives each member only those things which are necessary for him to know in order to be prepared for a meeting.—The programs of the Ithaca of ITHACA show close attention to the Greek studies; the work is lightened by much music; an entertainment at the opening of the year gave fresh interest to the work.—The First Ward Mosaics of ROCHESTER are members of other circles at which the regular lessons are discussed, and in their meetings extras only are taken up. Considerable time has been given this winter to memory culture. The Plato Symposium was a fine success with the Mosaics.—What a number of persons, most of whom feel that they cannot read the full course, can do in a circle, is well shown by the Hawthorne of CORNING. Twelve ladies meeting regularly, each of whom takes THE CHAUTAUQUAN, carry out the *Suggestive Programs*, thus getting a very clear idea of the C. L. S. C. readings and cultivating a taste for study.—A complete outline of the year's work is sent out by the CANANDAIGUA Circle at the beginning of the year. The numbers provided for are the subjects for roll-call quotations, a discussion of current events, questions on the Required Readings, and one paper, its writer assigned. The miscellaneous exercises for each evening are put into the care of a special committee, the name for each being given on the card outlining the work.—The Lathrap of JOHNSONSBURG is able to hold "very interesting" meetings by following the magazine programs. The same method is employed at MOUNT LEBANON. Several of the suggestions have been eminent successes, thus the "Dinner of Kallias" was given in detail, the climax being reached at the appearance of the dancing girl. The lecture reviewing the "Circle of Sciences" and a debate comparing Herodotus and Thucydides were particularly noteworthy.—In the Minneford of CITY ISLAND the members are divided into questioners and repliers alternately at successive meetings. The reading is divided into equal parts and each questioner prepares a certain number of questions on his portion, which are to be answered by the other side. This plan disposes of the readings.—After disposing of the lesson the Fortnightly Club of BUFFALO gives a few minutes to a talk on current events and to solving the puzzles the members have picked up in their reading.

NEW JERSEY.—The Newark of NEWARK employs a marking system. Last year the circle was divided into two classes; the side receiving the fewer marks gave a dinner to the winners. This year individual credits are given: 1 for attendance; 1 for quotation; 1 for reading; 2 for recitation; 3 for paper. The Newark is made up of young people whose friends are much pleased with the work they are doing and encourage them by many social attentions.—A Game of U. S. History and quotations are favorite numbers

in the Maurice Beesley Circle of DENNISVILLE.—At CRANFORD the Emerson Circle has found stimulus in corresponding with the ROSELLE Circle. A joint meeting is to be held soon.—The program committee at MOUNT HOLLY assigns a special author and subject for quotations a fortnight ahead. In questioning on the lesson the leader usually frames his own questions. The miscellaneous portion of the program is made bright by the skill of the musical and elocutionary members.—An essay evening once a month is a novelty in the Allo of HANCOCK'S BRIDGE. Papers are presented only at this meeting, when several on the lesson or current topics are read.—The WOODBURY Circle has introduced several unique features. One is responding to roll-call occasionally by original rhymes. In January, April, July, and October a paper is issued called *The Woodbury Chautauquan*. The contributors are appointed by the program committee. One of the members is furnishing a series of papers on "Dr. Schliemann and his Work." Each month a historian is appointed who jots down in a record-book important events.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A practical feature of the Lowell's work at ROCHESTER is the *Pronunciation Tests*. The attention given this in the circle keeps the members alert outside to niceties of sound and accent.—The MUNCY Circle finds it good policy to open its doors to any one who may desire to attend. This practice puts the members on their mettle and spreads interest in the work.—The Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN are taken up in turn by each member of the Alden of HARRISBURG and discussed; this exercise is supplementary to the usual program numbers. The Alden had a Christmas-tree with gifts for each member last Christmas.

SOUTHERN CIRCLES.—The CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA, Circle was organized November 22, 1887, and took its name from a Charleston poet—the Southern Körner—Henry Timrod. It consists now of eighteen members, has weekly meetings, keeps up with the course, adding readings, essays, debates, music, and social features, and believes earnestly in its motto: *Pulchrum est colere mentem*. Each member comes to the circle prepared with a quotation from some pre-appointed author, and from two to four questions bearing on the lesson, which the president reads out in turn, calling upon various members to answer. In this way, study of the lesson is promoted, research is stimulated, and the discussion that often arises not only aids in developing the truth, but also improves the powers of expression and the modes of thought.—The Chautauquans of GEORGIA have done a wise thing in appointing Mr. J. S. Davis, editor of the *Albany News*, and secretary of the assembly to be held at Albany this spring, State-Secretary of the C. L. S. C. The good wishes of all Chautauquedom will be with Mr. Davis.—Two families at JEWELLA, LOUISIANA, unite in carrying out, as far as practicable, the magazine programs. A member declares that the work is healthful not only mentally and morally but physically.

OHIO.—The GAMBIER Circle equalizes the program work by dividing the membership into two classes; from the first, the performers of one meeting are chosen and from the second, those for the next. There are obvious advantages in this plan. Each person knows when he is to perform, and no one has more than another to do.—The Olive Branch of FORGY has a peculiar make-up and method: its members, six, are so widely scattered—three post-offices are represented—that meetings are out of the question. Nevertheless the union is sustained, the members corresponding about the work and celebrating Memorial Days by each writing and sending to the others papers on the person

celebrated.—At EAST CLEVELAND the Collamer is following the *Suggestive Programs* with fine success. A brilliant New Year's reception was given by these Grecians to their Barbarian friends. Nearly two hundred persons were present. A striking part of the entertainment was the opening of Madame Pandora's box of figures. Juno, Minerva, Achilles, Penelope, Diogenes, and others came forth. Witty little descriptions accompanied the winding up and putting in position of each Greek goddess and hero. When all were arranged, red lights were thrown on and a beautiful tableau was presented.—The chief aim of the BELLEFONTAINE is a recitation each evening on all the reading gone over in the period since the last meeting. As time permits, miscellaneous exercises are introduced.—To insure attendance and performance, the CANTON Circle imposes fines, ten cents for absence, twenty-five cents for non-performance.

INDIANA.—In the GREENSBURG Circle the lesson is managed by giving each topic in the outline to a separate person who shall present it to the circle in the way he thinks best; thus the lesson in History would go to one who might question the circle on it; that in literature to another who would lecture on it; the article on a public question in THE CHAUTAUQUAN to still another who would incite and direct a discussion. The method works well.—The circle of graduates in WABASH is reading American authors and THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Much of the work is read aloud, and discussed as read.—The Fourth Annual Program of the Bryant of TERRE HAUTE outlines the lessons to be taken up at each meeting of the year and gives the subject and name for all the special performances.—The circle at VINCENNES is divided into three classes which perform in turn. Each class has a leader who assigns the work to each individual member of the class. Each person is expected to prepare the lesson assigned to him and present it, either in the form of questions, the circle acting as the class, or in a talk, or in a paper or essay, or by reading an article from an encyclopedia or some other book bearing on that topic. All questions are open to discussion.—The same plan, save that there are two classes instead of three, is employed at FAIRMOUNT.—The *Suggestive Programs* are used at ATTICA, with variations, of course. A great deal of essay work has been found profitable by the members there.

ILLINOIS.—A pleasant picture is suggested by the Wesleyana Circle of MONMOUTH. A father, mother, and five daughters compose it. They follow a form of opening exercises somewhat similar to that of the formal circle, after which the lesson is recited. On Memorial Days appropriate exercises take the place of the lesson.—WESTERN SPRINGS Circle finds satisfaction in conducting the meetings as a class in school.—The lesson is in the care of a leader in the Excelsior Circle of CHICAGO. This conductor prepares himself by reading carefully the subjects for the evening, by taking notes on important and interesting points, and by noting paragraphs for reference. From this outline he questions the class, which is expected to answer from memory. A general program committee provides also for lectures, essays, debates, music, and the like.—The lesson is all that the ST. CHARLES Circle tries to manage, but it does this with great carefulness. Promptness and regularity are insisted upon; two cardinal virtues for circle-members.—At MT. CARMEL the Mound Builders have found private parlors too small for their accommodation and have gone into a public hall. Their programs hug the lessons closely; they are printed each week in the local papers. An outfit of maps has been provided through the skill of a member who has enlarged them from an atlas.—Much interest has been awakened in SULLIVAN by employing

various features outside of the regular work. The reading of the "Evolution of Mrs. Thomas" and a course of public lectures and entertainments have been among these.—The Lawrence Circle of CHICAGO has been following afar off the programs laid out by the magazine. A program committee arranges for the work and no member is allowed to refuse the work assigned. Each member is on the program for a number, at least once in every month. Musicians and readers are taxed for brain work in addition to their specialties. A "Critical Class" is a novel feature. During the evening each one notes down anything in which he or she disagrees with the performer, and these notes are handed in at the end of the evening and put to the class as questions; decisions are often hard to arrive at, so diverse are opinions. It is considered one of the most instructive numbers on the program.—Occasionally the Clio of CHICAGO tries asking each member to bring in at least two questions on the readings; these are drawn and answered. The members take turns in performing the duties of program committee and critic.

KENTUCKY.—A portion of the opening exercises of the Bryant of COVINGTON is the reading of the selections for the week in *Sunday Readings*; current events, quotations or incidents connected with given topics are given in response to roll-call. All knotty questions suggested by the readings go into a question box; the president reads them and those which no member can answer are assigned to be answered at the next meeting. A leader is appointed for each lesson. When the month has five Sundays a more elaborate program is presented. The Bryant is repeating its last year's experiment of a lecture course, and with excellent success.

MICHIGAN.—The Mnason Circle of BELLEVUE is composed entirely of married ladies. This little group is thoroughly wide-awake, deeply interested and active in the work. The program in THE CHAUTAUQUAN is closely followed with variations to suit the class.—The entire membership at MANISTIQUE is divided into committees of two, which are numbered, and which in order assign the lesson conductors and the performers. Nearly all the time is spent upon the lesson.—Among the devices employed by the ELSIE Circle is a scrap-book to which all the members contribute, and a photograph case into which goes a cabinet of every member. The president of the Elsie makes out the program.—The ORION Circle inaugurated a good movement in September last, in its vicinity. The organizations in the neighboring towns were invited to meet for a picnic at a central park and there a permanent organization was effected of the circles represented. An annual gathering is arranged for.—The CALUMET Circle writes that in the county in which it is located, Houghton, a union of the circles has been formed. Mr. John Hall, Michigan Secretary of the C. L. S. C., was expected there in February. The Calumet has been attending a course of lectures given by the LAKE LINDEN Chautauquans, four miles away. Snow-shoeing is one of the delightful amusements in which these friends find relief from hard study.

WISCONSIN.—The Willaret of JANESVILLE uses the programs of the magazine as nearly as possible and celebrates the Memorial Days appropriately. An attempt is making this year to conduct lectures under the auspices of the circle.—The FOX LAKE readers find the regular work all that is necessary for an entertaining program. The exercises are announced in the local papers.

MINNESOTA.—Variety and life are to be seen in all that the Presbyterian Chautauquans of RED WING do. No stereotyped form is followed, but whatever bids fair to stimulate the readers is tried; thus uniting with a new circle of

the town, the lessons on chemistry are to be recited in the high school laboratory where they will have the advantage of apparatus and a chemist. An occasional lecture is given by the circle.——The Pembertonians of LAKE CITY are among the devotees of the *Suggestive Programs*. They dispose of the lesson by giving out topics a week in advance on which questions are asked. The *Questions and Answers* and *The Question Table* are incorporated into the exercises.——The secretary writes from HAMLINE of their method: "After opening exercises which consist of prayer, singing, reading of minutes, and roll-call, the lesson for the week is discussed and any special point of interest is spoken of or any part not fully understood is brought up and made plain. We follow quite closely the program laid down in the magazine, interspersing music, pronunciation tests, spelling tests, question boxes, and occasionally a game. This year we started in observing all Memorial Days with special programs. Sometimes we have a shorter program, and spend a social time, serving refreshments. Prof. M. F. Griffin of Hamline University gave us a very instructive lecture the latter part of November, on the "Influence of Grecian Literature and History on the World." The Oxford Circle of St. Paul was tendered a reception by the Hamline Circle.——The suggestive books read by the members of the Mitchell of BLUE EARTH CITY are reviewed at the meetings. A definition match, on the spelling-bee plan, is a Mitchell idea. The members have been helped not a little by a historical and geographical game which they play sometimes.

IOWA.—The fourteen Hyperions of ROCKFORD disclaim doing anything "new or startling," but do claim to study hard and to be determined to take the twelve-page memorandum—quite as healthy a thing as they could do. Teachers are appointed for each study and the members are expected to answer the queries put and to furnish as much additional matter as they can gather from the books outside of the course.——WASHINGTON has a circle of nearly forty acting members. The meetings, once a week, are usually well attended. The Chautauqua programs are modified to suit the circle.——The Delvers of SIOUX CITY keep close to the line of regular work. Each member in alphabetical order conducts the recitations in one subject for a month. A critic is appointed for each month. Music has a regular place on the program. A frequent method of responding to roll-call by the Delvers is for each to give a brief sketch of some person in the lesson, the class naming who is described.

MISSOURI.—Union Circle of St. LOUIS conducts a *bona fide* recitation at its meetings, and finds it best to attempt nothing but the regular work. It participates in the miscellaneous programs of the city's Chautauqua Union but nothing more.——Pallas Circle of KANSAS CITY opens its meetings with song and Vesper Service, and follows with a severe program on the Required Readings.

KANSAS.—The Ninnescah Circle at PRATT writes: "All our members and all who visit us are pleased to notice how much more pleasure there is in a social evening when there is some definite intellectual object in view. We find the best advertisement of the C. L. S. C. is the meetings of the local circle. We aim to have it distinctly understood in the community that visitors are always welcome, and find this better than direct invitations, as those who come feel the responsibility of the act themselves, and the comers are generally those who will be interested. Again, such an invitation precludes jealousies, and enhances thereby the finest features of the work, namely, that of uniting all creeds and peoples in a common effort for the upbuilding of education and Christianity."——Another band of close workers is the Operaria of McCUNE. The circle has joined the State

Union, we are glad to know.——The BURLINGAME Chautauquans find plenty of employment in following the suggestions in the magazine in regard to the lessons and they use them with good results.

WESTERN CIRCLES.—A ringing report reaches us from OAKLAND, NEBRASKA: "Our Chautauqua Circle is the life of our town. Our members are decidedly enthusiastic; let the 'wind and weather' be what it may, they are always at their post. This being a Swedish settlement, we have taken up the Swedish language in connection with our Chautauqua work—spending one hour of each meeting in that study. We follow the program found in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, spending a half hour on each of the text-books, and a quarter of an hour on each of the other subjects."——The DENVER, COLORADO, Chautauqua Union is composed of one hundred fifty members from the following circles: Alpha, Delta, Omicron, Omega, E. E. Hale, Ramona, Rocky Mountain, and Eureka. Their method is to hold occasional meetings devoted exclusively to a topic in the course; in December a program on Greece was carried out; in January a lecture on chemistry.——The president acts as lesson-director in the Silver State of FT. LUTON, COLORADO, and by a series of questions brings out the "points." His time is limited to an hour, after which a literary program is carried out.——The lesson is conducted at BROOKINGS, DAKOTA, by assigning each topic to a person who prepares about a dozen questions on it, writing them on a slip of paper. These are distributed to the members who read and answer the questions. The person who prepared the question gives the answer if the one who draws it cannot do so. Friends of the C. L. S. C. are invited to all meetings. The ambition at Brookings is to establish a permanent Chautauqua circle.——At WESTON, OREGON, three friends meet for circle work. Their custom is each to prepare separately questions on the week's work, discussing them and throwing all the side-lights obtainable by extended reading.——The magazine programs are followed closely by the HUSTON of PETALUMA, CALIFORNIA. Points in their plan of work are that all books must be closed during recitations, and that an unexcused absence means a fine. Much profit results from having some one regularly bring for definition a list of uncommon words found in the Required Reading.

NEW CIRCLES.

ENGLAND.—Of recent organization in BURNLEY is a small circle which promises to increase its circumference rapidly.

SCOTLAND.—A report of delightful meetings is sent from a new circle in GLASGOW. The eight members meet the fourth Monday evening of each month to spend two hours in reviewing the studies. The secretary says: "We are already astonished and delighted with our united study."

CANADA.—The circle at HAMILTON dates from January, but is using best endeavors to make up for lost time, and to interest others in the studies.——The local paper in OSHAWA gives regular notices of the programs of the flourishing circle in that place. The circle makes much of the *Pronunciation Tests*.——The circle in ST. GEORGE is the pioneer one of the county, and its enthusiasm will doubtless be contagious.——Eighteen members and an able president is the favorable news of the circle in HATLEY.——The Ionic of MONCTON began with thirty-four members and has added several more.

MAINE.—Although BIDDEFORD POOL is a place of less than two hundred inhabitants it has a goodly membership in its circle.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The circle at PLYMOUTH, noticed in our February issue, has increased its membership to seventeen.——NEW BOSTON has eleven '92's.

VERMONT.—The five members in EAST POULTNEY are thoroughly in earnest.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Omegas of BOSTON spend some time at each meeting in discussing questions that have arisen since they last met. The Hale is another new circle of the same city.—Twenty-four names are registered from WESTMINSTER.—There are twenty-two students in Perseverance Circle of SHARON.

CONNECTICUT.—A novel feature of a recent program carried out by Hall Circle of WEST HARTFORD, was a "Contest of Names." The secretary sent to each member a list of the important persons and places mentioned in the studies, that each might be prepared to tell why these persons and places were famous. The contest was conducted after the manner of a spelling match. The circle has enjoyed a lecture on Greece by a professor of Greek from Doane College.

NEW YORK.—The leader of UNION SPRINGS Circle is not satisfied with a thorough review of the week's study, but frequently questions the class on recitations. All members are working for the White Seal.—The circles at ELMIRA, WEST RUSH, and the Philosophian of CENTRE BRUNSWICK are recent organizations.

NEW JERSEY.—Central Circle of BRIDGETON has a membership of twenty-seven, all of whom are greatly interested in their work.—"Scarcely a question is missed in our recitations," says a member of GLADSTONE Circle.—The circle at OCEAN CITY is completing its first year.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Triangle of YORK holds weekly meetings at the homes of the members.—Circles at ALTOONA and MIDDLETOWN are busily working.

IN THE SOUTH.—The circles of SPARTANBURG, SOUTH CAROLINA, have monthly reunions presided over by Counselor James H. Carlisle.—The new circle at WESSON, MISSISSIPPI, began with fifteen members.—Twenty-four names are now enrolled in LAMPASAS, TEXAS.

OHIO.—"We enroll twenty-two members, all busy people who appreciate the idea of saving the spare minutes," writes the secretary of CAMBRIDGE Circle.—A half hour of each meeting of Oak Openings Circle in CASTALIA is given to miscellaneous exercises, the subjects of which are prepared by a committee of three. Such subjects are chosen as the doings of Congress, an evening of travel, a political discussion, a pronunciation or spelling match. A class paper to which every member is expected to contribute, is read at each meeting.—A president from the ranks of '91, and several '92's form the new circle of ALLIANCE called the Junior Circle.—An enthusiastic class is at work in NEWPORT.—The circle connected with Central Christian Church of CINCINNATI has a large membership.—Announcement of new organizations have been received from LENA, ROOTSTOWN, WEST MILTON, and NEW PLYMOUTH.

INDIANA.—The circle at ROANN reports progress.

ILLINOIS.—The course has been begun with great enthusiasm by Perennial Circle of FAIRBURY. There are twenty members.—Goodspeed of CHICAGO has increased in numbers from ten to sixteen since October. The Goodspeed uses *The Question Table* for roll-call.—A college graduate well posted in Greek history has acted as president of ASHLAND Circle and has been of great help in the studies of the Greek year.—Workers only are allowed in EUREKA Circle, except on special occasions. Interesting meetings and regular attendance characterize the Eureka.—ARCADIA Circle held a very successful Plato Symposium.—The Promethians of WOODSTOCK are twelve in number, all studying for the White Seal.—KIRKLAND has a circle of ten, COLLINSVILLE of nineteen, and PONTIAC of fourteen.—The Crescent is a new circle in BELVIDERE.

MICHIGAN.—The sixteen Progressives of WAYLAND have very interesting and beneficial meetings.—Three new circles of GRAND RAPIDS are Ramona, Longfellow, and South, all of which have bright programs and good attendance. A "question down" was the feature of a recent evening in the Ramona.—Six faithful students meet weekly in ROLLIN CENTER.—The specimen programs sent from LANSING Circle indicate that work of the best quality is required.—A C. L. S. C. scrap-book is to be started in the Square of DOUGLAS. It is to contain any printed paragraphs that can be found in line with the readings, with blank spaces left for writing in statements from books and magazines which cannot be cut. Members of the Square talk about the readings wherever they happen to meet, and the result is an awakening of interest among their friends. The name of the Square may need to be changed to Polygon.—The first half year of SOUTH FRANKFORT Circle shows a worthy record.

WISCONSIN.—The Hyperboreans of ANTIGO are doing a good deal of outside reading.—A circle of twenty-five was organized in December at WEST SUPERIOR.

MINNESOTA.—In ELK RIVER Circle one hour is devoted to the lesson which is conducted by one of the members. The remaining time is given to the program prepared by a committee of three. The nineteen members meet weekly.

IOWA.—WALKER Circle organized in January, but is ambitious to be ready on time next fall.—The five Athenians of PALO spend one evening each week carrying out the programs of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.—Honest work is done in the circles of SIGOURNEY and SERGEANT BLUFFS.

MISSOURI.—The class in CAMERON takes hold with a will.

KANSAS.—"Our meetings are intensely interesting," writes a member of Galaxy Seal Club of TOPEKA. Its membership is limited to twenty.—The circle in ANTHONY has met every week except during the Christmas holidays, when a well-earned vacation was enjoyed.—The leader's term of office is one year in length, in Zephyr Circle of RUSSELL. One post graduate is numbered among the twenty members.—Nine energetic students form HORTON Circle.—As the '92's graduate in the fourth centennial of the discovery of America, the new circle of EMPORIA has taken a name suggestive of the occasion, the name of the vessel in which Columbus reached these shores,—*Santa Maria*. The twenty-two passengers of the *Santa Maria* hope to enter with flying colors the harbor of Chautauqua in 1892.—Carnation Circle of PARSONS has seventeen members, Hesperian of HESS CITY, twenty-seven, and HUGOTON Circle, seven.

NEBRASKA.—Sixteen graduates of LINCOLN have organized a S. H. G. Circle.—"A splendid circle of nineteen members," says the president of ORD Circle.

COLORADO.—Silver Queen Circle of GEORGETOWN takes all the questions of *The Question Table*, one set each week, in addition to the regular program.—Two ladies in FORT COLLINS meet every Monday afternoon, and carry out the programs of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.—The Crest of the Continent is the circle name in SALIDA.

DAKOTA.—Woonspe, the Sioux word for knowledge, is a pleasant circle of eight in ONIDA.

WASHINGTON.—The circle at SPOKANE FALLS not having organized until December, is planning to study through the summer months.

CALIFORNIA.—EAST OAKLAND Circle has eight '92's and is working for more.—The First C. L. S. C. of SANTA ANA is trying the plan of calling upon one member to conduct the recitations through each book, the review being left to the leader. The twenty members meet weekly. Roll-call is usually responded to by topics of the time.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

PROHIBITION IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The people of Pennsylvania will vote on the 18th of June for and against a constitutional amendment prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicants. This reform measure is presented under the most favorable conditions. The election is for that single purpose and no politics can fairly get into the question. The Republicans being in a large majority have, not however without some Democratic co-operation, ordered the election. But this action is based on the simple principle that the people have a right to decide the question; and the measure is completely non-partisan. The various temperance societies of the state have united in a campaign organization, liberal supplies of money for necessary expenses are being pledged, and the amendment will be diligently and strenuously urged upon the patriotism and conscience of the voters of the Commonwealth.

There is good ground for anticipating a prohibition victory in the second (in population) of the states of this Union; and Pennsylvania is so geographically and commercially related to the greater part of the nation that the victory will be unusually significant and influential. It will prove that a great, populous, manufacturing state having great cities in its territory feels the need of prohibitory legislation. A large majority—and friends of the measure hope for that—would practically settle the policy of the whole country. Perhaps no election was ever held with so much at stake. A failure to give a majority vote for the amendment would discourage, perhaps for years to come, the prohibition movement and tempt temperance men in other states to fall back upon restrictive legislation. A great victory would silence all opposition by temperance men to prohibitory measures. In an unusual degree the cause of prohibition is at stake, and not alone in Pennsylvania. Failure will not only indefinitely postpone prohibition in the state, it will also postpone it all along the line.

There is not much danger that the temperance people will divide on the question, though enemies of the measure hope for such division. The Brooks' License Law has many friends, but the body of these friends consists of temperance people who have accepted it as a second-best, the best to be had; but they prefer prohibition and will vote for it with hearty enthusiasm. The information collected by some newspapers leads to the belief that the Brooks' Law has really prepared the way for prohibition. Those who have labored to enforce the present law, whether they have succeeded or failed, have come to the conclusion that prohibition will prohibit and that the amendment once adopted will have a tremendous moral force behind it. It is plain that the liquor trade has made no friends but has made new enemies in recent years.

For example, no community in the state believes that the sellers of intoxicants have any purpose or power to obey the restrictions of the Brooks' Law. As a body rum-sellers are law-breakers, and even when fenced round with privilege, they generally violate the restrictive features of the statute which authorizes their dangerous business. For mad dogs we want muzzles; for law-breakers we want plain and absolute "thou shalt nots." The compromise ground of license is untenable in all ways, especially because the licensed never keep their part of the covenant. And no state has a larger supply of this kind of experience than Pennsylvania.

We look, therefore, for a general rally of all law and order citizens to the support of the amendment. There will be efforts to divide temperance men, to thrust partisan cries into the discussion, to demoralize the movement by personal issues. The liquor interest is large and it is not brainless, and it cannot af-

ford to be put under a constitutional ban. But neither can temperance men afford to lose this fight. The loss of it would weaken every agency which makes for righteousness, and, in the temperance field, compel the doing over again of much earnest and valuable work for the cause. The election is a glorious opportunity; let us hope it will be seized by a united and triumphant temperance party in the grand old Commonwealth.

THE SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE.

Ever since our country began, one hundred years ago, its legal national life, the President has had his group of immediate assistants or advisers. He has a Secretary of State, of War, of the Navy, of the Interior, of the Treasury, of the Post-office. These officers form the Presidential Cabinet. It has taken us one hundred years to learn that there should have been one more department. On the edge of our second century we add a department of Agriculture—placing at the end that which should have come first. In France the highest officer of the Cabinet holds the portfolio of agriculture. We seem to be content to tack it on in a half-hearted way at the end and to fancy that anybody can fill the office.

In the extent of our cultivated lands, in the variety and magnitude of our crops, we are the leading agricultural country of the world. It is right and proper that there should be a representative of this our chief industry in the chief council of the nation. It is of the first importance that the new office be filled by a man worthy the position. A mere politician will not do. A man who only cares to distribute seeds, a man with only one idea, a man with experiments to try at public expense will not answer. We may not even want a farmer—if he be nothing more. The Secretary of Agriculture must be a man of broad and liberal views, a man capable of seeing what the many interests of this our basic business needs, and, seeing, wields his best to foster and defend them.

We have had hitherto a Commissioner of Agriculture. We have given away millions of pounds of seeds. We have even had a tea garden and tried sundry sugar experiments. It is safe to say we want no more of that sort of business. We want a Secretary; a man like Whitney to create a navy, like the great War and Treasury Secretaries of Lincoln's time.

The business of raising wealth from the ground is as old as the race and yet it is a science in which there are wider fields for original research to-day than ever before. We have a new chemistry. Biology and the new domains of science opened by Pasteur are intimately linked with farming. We want a Secretary capable of gathering all that is best in the world and of sifting and sorting it for the use of plain men engaged in the plain business of feeding the nation. It has been said that the farmer is already overtaught, that men of science try to tell him things that it will not pay to know and that would be fatal to try on the farm. The practical farmer is even a trifle uneasy about the new secretary, lest he be "impractical and notional." At the same time, men of sense recognize that, while farming is old, science is new, and that science stands for truth. Farming is manufacturing food and raiment. It is not mere sowing and reaping. It must more and more conform to the laws of manufacture and must be more and more a science. It is not too old to learn and the right man in the new office will be a Secretary standing between the farmer on the one hand and the student of nature on the other, helping the one to the best the other offers. Moreover, he must be a business Secretary—a man of business ready to see that the farmer's business is conducted on business principles, and not by the tricks and evasions of the politicians.

"SICKNESS AS A PROFESSION."

A suggestive book has been written recently by Dr. H. H. Moore, under the title of "Sickness as a Profession." A bright, interesting, and well-educated woman allows herself to fall into the habit of exaggerating her ailments until she becomes convinced that she is an incurable invalid. As her interest in her "case" increases, her interest in her home, family, church, and society decreases. Finally she reaches a point where she thinks and talks only of her symptoms, her doctor, and her medicine. She becomes a professional invalid, though with no ailments beyond the dyspepsia caused by inactivity and the attendant neuralgia. Her only *real* disease is her conviction that she is sick. The case is not an uncommon one. All physicians and most intelligent observers are familiar with invalids whose imaginations alone make them sick. This sad condition does not come in a night. It is the natural outcome of habits common to almost all people. Let a man awake with a cold, and he feels that he has a legitimate excuse for dropping his daily routine of business. If this is impossible he uses his affliction as a subject for thought, conversation, and lament. He dwells upon it until convinced that he is in a serious condition. The cold in his mind soon is far more serious than that in his head. Nobody thinks of advising him not to think about his disorder. Such advice would look like lack of sympathy. The longer the cold remains, the more attached to it the sufferer grows; the fonder he becomes of thinking of it and picturing it to his friends. He has taken the first step toward "sickness as a profession."

Now a wise man who wishes to live to old age, hale and hearty, will keep strict account of his physical condition. He will know in the morning how his stomach is digesting, his blood circulating, his nerves holding. If there is disorder anywhere he will give it prompt treatment. But he will understand the delicate relation between mind and body and recognize that every pain in the body is attended by an image of a pain in the mind and that it is possible to increase the latter to such a size

that it will completely overshadow its original, even remaining sometimes after the latter has disappeared. He will treat his ailment but he will not let his thoughts or his tongue dwell upon it. There is, indeed, but one safe rule for the sick. It is that which that noble institution the Clifton Springs Sanitarium has inscribed in its code of regulations, "Patients must not talk with one another about their complaints."

The use of sickness as a topic for conversation is one of the most contradictory turns polite society takes. Its accepted canons declare that cheerless, disgusting, and depressing topics are not to be tolerated. It is impossible to talk of disease without just such suggestions. Sickness in itself has ceased to be interesting. The vale of mystery has been torn from it. Neglect, abuse, license, and filth are recognized as its causes. There is nothing desirable in it—save the excuse it gives for talking about one's self. Yet the incidents and experiences of the sick-room, the symptoms of an approaching illness, the phases of slight ailments frequently are laid bare in elegant society. The incongruity of such themes for any ears but those of the physician and family is generally unrecognized.

The treatment which Dr. Moore in his book applies to his heroine is stiffly heroic. Medicine, doctors, and attendants are taken from her. She is told plainly that she is a victim of her own imagination; that she can be well if she will throw off her hallucination, and interest herself in home, church, and society. A cure is effected after a few trials. The treatment is suggestive. From it a code of rules might be drawn up for home and society. This code would demand immediate attention to every physical disorder; it would forbid any mention of it save to the necessary friends; it would not allow it to sit at the table or appear in the parlor, to go on the street or mingle in business. It would make the body know its place. A wonderful addition to cheerfulness and to social interest would come from such habits. But the physical gain would be greater. The less disease is fed, the sooner it is cured. With no mind-food to nourish it, its chance of reigning would be almost halved.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

At noon, March 4, the 50th Congress of the United States came to an end. In length (nearly 14 months), in laws enacted, (1,791), in presidential vetoes (278), it has surpassed all its predecessors. A fact worth pondering is the attention given to *private* bills; of those passed, 1,241 were of this character. The act for which the centennial Congress will be longest remembered is the admission of the four new states. After this its enactments of greatest value, have been the creation of the Department of Agriculture, its call for a conference of South and Central American nations and for a marine conference, the incorporation of the Nicaragua Canal Company, directing that an attempt be made to construct water reservoirs in the dry regions of the West, and the improvement of the quarantine service.

The 26th Inauguration of a President of the United States furnished encouragement to the advocates of several very different causes. The misery of "inaugurating" under umbrellas gave countenance afresh to those persons who have been urging a change of the date of the ceremony from March 4 to April 30. The absence of wines from the inaugural ball supper was significant to temperance people. The purely American make of the fabrics used in the gowns of the incoming administration ladies gave cheer to those who advocate the use of domestic products in preference to foreign. The modesty, kindliness, good sense, and breadth of the Inaugural Address strengthened the hearts of those who believe in principles above party. The courtesy and good-will with which the change was made, emphasized the wisdom of those who believe in accepting the results of an honest election with kindly and loyal feelings.

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Men who have been accustomed to doing large things faithfully and honestly are what a Presidential Cabinet needs. President Harrison's new Cabinet stands this test well: Secretary of State Blaine has handled great enterprises for years, was in Congress for nineteen years, was President Garfield's Secretary of State, and was three times a candidate for presidential nomination; Secretary of Treasury Windom has been a Senator, filled his present place in President Garfield's Cabinet, and has handled large business and law undertakings; Secretary of War Proctor has an honorable war record, has wielded large influence in Vermont politics, being at one time its governor, and has been a success in law and business; Attorney-General Miller has been the law partner of President Harrison and has handled a large practice; Postmaster-General Wanamaker has developed a business enterprise scarcely less intricate and vexing than the department he takes charge of; Secretary of Navy Tracy rose to the rank of general in the war, has held important positions in New York State, and is an eminent lawyer; Secretary of the Interior Noble also won a generalship in the war, has held office in Missouri, and has been a prominent member of the bar; Secretary of Agriculture Rusk, the third general in the Cabinet, was in Congress six years, and for the last seven years has been governor of one of the most highly developed states of the Union, Wisconsin.

Liberal government henceforward will have a strong and worthy representative on the other side of the globe. After eight years of deliberation a new constitution has been laid before the people of Japan. It establishes a House of Peers and a

House of Commons of 300 members, the right of suffrage for all men of the age of twenty-five years and over who pay taxes to the amount of \$25 yearly, liberty of religion, freedom of speech, the right of public meeting, and legislative functions and the control of the finances, under limitations, for Parliament.

Japan's enlightened course does something to console lovers of liberal ideas and fair play for certain recent shabby European tricks; such as excluding copies of Mr. George Kennan's articles on Siberia from Russia; sending into exile the eighty cooks of the imperial palace of Constantinople who struck because they did not receive their wages; the confiscation by the German police of Dr. Mackenzie's book on the Emperor Frederick's sickness and death; and the imprisonment of Prof. Geffcken because he published extracts from Emperor Frederick's Diary.

If the members of the W. C. T. U. need encouragement in their practice of appealing to voters at the ballot box, let them read the following. It comes from a leading brewer of Pennsylvania: "Keep the women away from the polls and we will win without a doubt. They will be the very best and most respectable women. Neither I nor any other saloon-keeper will have the courage or the incivility to dispute with them for a vote."

The effects of the dramatic fate of the *London Times*' (and the Tory Government's) case against Mr. Parnell and the Irish leaders are startling and extensive. A newspaper which for nearly a century has been the unquestioned authority of English conservatives has broken its reputation by a piece of incomprehensible rashness; the present government has been discredited; a complete revulsion of feeling and opinion in favor of the Home rulers has taken place; Mr. Parnell has been given "an opportunity of a life-time" and nobly has he used it, uttering no word of triumph or bitterness, but turning the whole force of the power he gained by the *denouement* of the trial to help the cause he represents.

Again we have a tragic demonstration of the inevitable natural results of immorality. Pigott, the forger of the famous letters on which the *London Times* based its charge against Mr. Parnell, driven to a confession of his baseness, takes his own life. Mr. Labouchere states the whole case when he says that his career and end was "all due to a place in his head, which ought to contain something moral, being a cavity." A hundred years ago M. Necker, the French minister of Finance, said to Mirabeau,—the only man who saw through the awful fogs of the Revolution,—"You are a man of too large a mind not to find out sooner or later that *morality is a part of the nature of things*." And Mirabeau himself lamented that he could not save France because his own vices stood in his way.

February saw the downfall of the French cabinet and the formation of a successor. It looks now as if the latter would be supported until after the close of the exhibition, not because the people are satisfied or Boulangerism dead, but because they all must live and the exposition is expected to contribute largely to their means for so doing. In short, their reasons are not unlike those given by an English official to his king: "I have the most conclusive reasons for supporting your Majesty's policy. In fact, I have eleven such reasons: a wife and ten children."

Thrifty people cannot but feel a kind of despair in observing how rarely economy is practiced as a principle by Americans. A good illustration is the use—or misuse—made of natural gas in the districts where it is found. The *American Manufacturer* estimates that in the mills of Pittsburgh 50 per cent is lost by bad methods and carelessness. These estimates would not be far wrong in other places. We remember visiting an Ohio town some two years ago in which natural gas was used for lighting. It was allowed to burn all day. The explanation given was that it was cheaper to let it burn than to hire a man to turn it off.

The elephant has played no small part in the world's history. An object of worship, a beast of burden, an aid in war, a commercial factor, the unfailing resource of the showman, his part has been both prominent and creditable. A new position has been found for him. His care in testing a bridge before crossing it is well-known. This habit has been turned to account in Bridgeport, Conn., the home of the famous showman Barnum. A new bridge being finished, a dozen elephants were driven to it, and when they unhesitatingly tramped across it, the bridge was pronounced beyond a doubt secure. How would it do to make him a government bridge-tester?

At present there is in dispute, in New Hampshire, a will leaving to a son \$5,000 a year until his death. If he remains sober for ten years, he can draw \$250,000; if he remains sober for a second ten years, he can draw \$250,000 more. If he gets intoxicated once, he loses all. A will which holds a young man to a temperate life, ought surely to awaken blessings, not disputes. It is worth noting that the question of whether a child is worthy to inherit a fortune, influences yearly more and more of the wills of rich men.

The American Pomological Society is the latest advocate of name-reform. High sounding and unmeaning names have been applied to new fruits so generally that the society has started a discussion of what can be done to secure a simple and characteristic nomenclature. The new Secretary of Agriculture, General Rusk, will approve of this undertaking. About the first thing he did after his election to the legislature of Wisconsin in 1861 was to have the name of the county he lived in changed from *Bad Axe*.

The young lady whom a humorist describes as asking a learned professor of botany to tell her all about the growth and habits of the electric plant as she wanted to know how it possibly could make electric lighting cost so much, would be surprised to know that nearly \$70,000,000 was added last year to the capital already invested in that plant. The number of lamps was increased 49 per cent in that time.

"Ill blows the wind that profits nobody." Year after year the inventors of ice machines and ice manufactories have seen nature take their work from their hands. The winter of 1888-89, however, did not go into the ice-making business except as a diversion. Science and Industry are left to make up his deficiencies. That they can do it is certain. When a demand has been well established, they never yet have failed to meet it.

An ingenious story-writer recently set a character at telling the history of the past two centuries to an audience of isolated islanders. "Often did I wish for their sakes," says the historian, "that I had made a more exact study of it." To give impromptu a respectable account of even two past years would puzzle many reading people. Accurate noting of contemporaneous events is rare. Edward Everett Hale gives a good example of this in the second volume of his "Franklin in France" when he calls attention to Franklin's statement that in the Paris riot of May, 1789, from 20 to 200 persons were killed, while Dampmartin puts the number at from 400 to 500. Both chroniclers were in Paris at the time and had equal advantages for knowing.

The conviction spreads that Christianity is for daily use. Here are two significant proofs. The first is the experiment making by a Connecticut clergyman who gives informal talks on religion every Sunday evening to a number of men assembled in a dry goods store. In a pleasant, chatty style, he lectures on such subjects as Biblical inspiration, while the men listen and smoke. He could reach them in no other way. The second is a fully organized association of French Protestant ministers for the study of social questions.

The Labor Bureau has been investigating the condition of working women in the great cities. It finds that 85 per cent of them live at home. Here is a partial clue to the comparatively low wages women receive. The majority of them are not home-makers, or even completely self-supporting. If they can earn enough to clothe themselves, help beautify their homes, and do a little now and then for other members of the family, they will take whatever is offered. In short, the amount of a woman's wages is settled largely by the fact that as a rule she is only a partial self-supporter. This desire to piece out her support is an important agency in making the wages of women so much lower than those which men receive for the same work.

If the contents of the private bills which go before Congress were familiar to everybody, we are sure public opinion would petition that Congress be relieved from so much petty business. Mr. Bryce in his "American Commonwealth" calls especial attention to the amount of time they take as well as to their nature, and quotes four which show admirably how wide is the range of Congressional interference in private matters: the first asks that a pension be increased; the second that the heirs of a certain citizen be paid for three mules which he had sold the United States in 1864, the third that a fog-bell be placed on Graham Shoals, and the fourth that the duty on a painted glass window sent from London to a Washington church be refunded.

Max O'Rell in talking of the American newspapers remarks that the articles instead of being always by "One who knows," are often by "One who doesn't." Frances Hodgson Burnett will appreciate this. After her return from Europe last fall she was persecuted by the appearance of frequent articles describing her as a person of erratic habits and grotesque dress. The characterization continued until Mrs. Burnett felt compelled to print an article in self-defense. In it she pathetically asks, "Why do they do it?" Probably because the stuff sells well. But it is short-sighted policy. The public unquestionably enjoys personalities; but it does not enjoy being sold. Once conscious that the current fascinating tales of successful men and women are fictions, it will be the first to protest; not on the abused's account, of course, but on its own.

The Class of '88 has the right of way this month. Her sister classes will, we are sure, not object to stepping aside for one month that her roster may appear in all its glorious strength. 3,946 names are enrolled in the present issue as graduates. They come from 47 states and territories; from Canada and from the Hawaiian Islands. The largest number from any one state is the 540 from New York. In the new states, fifteen names are to be divided between North and South Dakota; Montana has 6, and Washington, 21. With the graduation of the Class of '88 the whole number of persons having completed the C. L. S. C. readings in its seven classes is 18,026.

C. L. S. C. NOTES ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL.

"CHEMISTRY."

P. 166. "The Swedish, or rather Prussian, chemist Scheele." For the reason of referring to Scheele as belonging to two countries, see account on p. 79 of text-book.

P. 185. "Battle of Crécy." The celebrated battle fought August 26, 1346, between the English under Edward III. and the French under Philip VI. It was at this battle that Edward seeing his son, the Black Prince, hard pressed, refused to send him help, saying, "Let the boy win his spurs." And in this battle, too, the blind King John of Bohemia took an active part, whose motto, "*Ich dein*" (I serve) was, from that time, adopted by the Black Prince. It is claimed that artillery was used by the English for the first time at Crécy. The Moors had already made use of it at Cordova in 1280; Ferdinand IV., King of Spain, took Gibraltar with cannon in 1309, and the French had carried on the siege at Puy Guillaume with their use in 1338.

P. 189. "Gun-cotton." As early as 1838 Pérouze, a French chemist, noticed that when cotton fabrics or paper were dipped in nitric acid they became explosive. But it was not till 1845 that a German chemist, Schonbein, announced the discovery of gun-cotton, and proposed substituting it for gunpowder. It is sometimes manufactured into an explosive paper, in which form it is much safer to handle. (See article on "Gun-Cotton: its History, Manufacture, Use," in *The Scientific American* for February 23, 1889.)

P. 192. "Dynamite." There is a great difference of opinion regarding the pronunciation of this word. Worcester agrees with the author of the text-book. In the latest edition of Webster's Dictionary, in both the main part and the "Supplement," it is given as "dy-na-mite."

P. 193. "Mont-Cenis." This is an Alpine mountain lying between the province of Turin in Italy and the department of Savoie, France. Its peak reaches a height of 11,457 feet, and the elevated plateau is 6,773 feet high. Over this plateau ran the pass celebrated in history, along which Pepin, Charlemagne, Frederick Barbarossa, and the Duke of Alva led their armies. Napoleon built a carriage road over it, and this was superseded by a railroad, opened in 1868, built at a cost of £8,000 a mile. In its turn this railroad has yielded to the new tunnel route

which was put in operation in 1871. Numerous plans for a number of years had been presented by different engineers for constructing such a tunnel, but all proved defective in some particular. In 1857 the work under new plans was undertaken. In January, 1861, everything was ready for the perforating machine to begin operations on the south side at Bardonecchia, and in the same month in 1863, on the north side at Modane. On December 26, 1870, the two bodies of workmen met. The tunnel is nearly eight miles long; the number of workmen employed was between 3,000 and 4,000; and the cost of construction, \$15,000,000.

"St. Gothard" (san go-tar). This tunnel is conceded to be among the greatest, if it is not the greatest, of the works ever done by man. It is over nine miles in length. There was not, as in the case of Mont Cenis, any point from which the position at both ends of the tunnel could be indicated. All the directions and the levels had to be obtained entirely by triangulations. The tunnel, begun in 1870, was formally opened in May, 1882.

"Hell Gate." A good description of the destruction of Flood Rock will be found in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for December, 1885.

P. 194. "Torpedoes." These instruments of warfare are a development of the "Greek fire" of the ancients, that being the name applied to compounds that would burn on or under water. A description of it is given in Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," chapter 52. The earliest recorded attempt to use one of these "floating mines" was made at Antwerp in 1585, when a bridge was exploded. This success led to numerous experiments, but for two centuries the results obtained did not prove satisfactory. An American engineer, Captain David Bushnell (1742-1826), invented a kind of drifting torpedo which did good service in the Revolution, and gave rise to the so-called Battle of the Kegs. Robert Fulton (1765-1815) made the first submarine boat, the *Nautilus*, which blew up a ship in the harbor of Brest. Shortly after he invented a system of torpedoes, which, however, was not adopted by any country. Several other experimenters, among whom the American Colt was prominent, made efforts in this line of invention. It was not until the time of the Civil War that torpedo warfare played an

important part. The South possessed no fleet, and resorted largely to this method for destroying the vessels of the North. Since then rapid progress has been made in this system, and military engineers everywhere are giving close attention to the subject.

P. 197. "Apatite." Native phosphate of lime. It occurs in rocks such as granite, greenstone, and limestone, but most abundantly in beds of animal remains. A large deposit of it in the form of nodules (rounded masses) exists in South Carolina. Apatite is also found in England, Ireland, and Spain. It is ground to powder, and subjected to the action of sulphuric acid, which renders the phosphorus soluble in water, before it is applied to the soil.

"Necrosis." Latin. "Mortification." A term applied especially to bones which have lost their life.

P. 214. "*Cette dernière vertu*," etc. I believe that it still possesses this last virtue when the husband is rich enough to buy the gem which his wife is ambitious to wear.

"The Star of the South." This gem was found in Brazil in 1853. In its rough state it weighed 254½ carats, but was reduced in cutting to 126 carats. It was carried to France, and the cutting was done by Mr. Coster, of Amsterdam.

"The Regent." This diamond was obtained in India by Mr. Pitt, the governor of Madras, the grandfather of the great Earl of Chatham. It is one of the most perfect known. Weighing 410 carats, it was cut down to 136. Its value is estimated at \$1,000,000. Napoleon had it placed in the hilt of his sword; at the battle of Waterloo it was taken by the Prussians.

"The Orloff." This diamond is about the size of a pigeon's egg and weighs 195 carats. It is said to have once formed the eye of an Indian idol, whence it was stolen by a French deserter. It was bought in 1772 by Count Orloff for the Empress Catharine II. of Russia. It adorns the point of the scepter of the Emperor of Russia.

"The Grand Mogul." The largest known diamond, but there have always been doubts as to its being genuine. It was found in Golconda in 1550 and is said to have weighed originally 900 carats. It was cut down to 280 carats and is in the possession of the Shah of Persia.

P. 219. "The Koh-i-noor." When Punjâb passed under the rule of England this magnificent diamond became the property of Queen Victoria. It was found in the mines of Golconda. The Hindoos claim to trace its history 3,000, and some, indeed, 5,000 years, back. It weighed before cutting, 800 carats, but by careless work had to be reduced to 279 carats. It was presented to the Queen by the East India Company. It has since been recut to increase its brilliancy, and now weighs only 106 carats. While it ranks in size as the sixth in the world, it is held highest in value, being worth \$2,000,000.

P. 229. "Boussingault" (boo-sang-gō), Jean Baptiste. (1802 —.) A French chemist.

ZOOLOGY.

P. 88. "The lamprey." The European species, known as the lamprey eel, is prized highly by some people as food, being considered a great delicacy. Its flesh is white, very tender, and finely flavored. In the days of ancient Rome it formed one of the famous dishes of those famous epicures. The Roman nobles kept the eels in ponds and were accustomed to have them brought to the table at first alive that their guests might admire their beautiful colors, after which they were taken away and cooked. Lampreys live upon animal food, and it is said that some noblemen fattened them on the flesh of slaves. (See Barnes' "Brief History of Rome,"—Chautauqua Edition of 1885, notes on pp. 96 and 113.)

P. 91. "Ganoids." Fishes of this class made their appearance in the early geological history of the world and flourished in immense numbers for unknown millions of years. Hugh Miller says, "The dynasty of the ganoids was at one time co-extensive with every lake, river, and sea, and endured during the unreckoned eons which extended from the times of the lower Old Red Sandstone until those of the Chalk." On the appearance of the bony fishes, this class began to diminish, different species slowly but constantly becoming extinct, until only the few representations of the present time are left. Most interesting and popular descriptions of these fossil fishes are to be found in Hugh Miller's "Testimony of the Rocks" and "Old Red Sandstone"; in several of his other works also sketches of them are given. See also Agassiz's "Fossil Fishes."

P. 97. "Alewife." This fish is known in the British provinces as the gaspereau. From a reference made to it in Whittier's poem "Abraham Davenport," it will be seen that the Fisheries question is one as old as the United States.

P. 99. "Flying fish." There are descriptions of more than fifty species of these fishes. They are all found in tropical or subtropical waters. Opinions differ as to the reason of their leaving the water—some claiming that they do so only when pursued by enemies; others, that they also dart out to catch insects; and still others, that this is often done, seemingly, for sport. While in the air they are in danger of being snatched up by ocean birds, the albatross, the pelican, the petrel, etc.

P. 105. "Dipnoi." The description given in the last sentence on the page, relating to the "lung-like structure of the air bladder," gives the reason for their name "dipnoi," a derivation from two Greek words meaning "two" and "breath."

P. 109. "Toads and frogs." Notice the directions given on p. 282, for studying the development of batrachians. It would be well while in this part of the study of zoölogy to make preparations for carrying out at the proper time the suggestions given there, thus furnishing an opportunity for studying the changes described.

P. 123. "The bony armor of all the species [of the crocodile] is their protection against all enemies. It is proof against the rifle ball which can only take effect when it strikes the eye, or the unarmed skin on the belly, or about the insertion of the fore-legs. The construction of this armor, however, prevents them from turning rapidly when on dry land, so that their pursuit is easily avoided."

P. 124. "Owen," Richard. (1804—.) An eminent English zoölogist and anatomist. He has published several books on natural history and comparative anatomy.

P. 139. "Lamellirostres." The meaning of this word, as of most of the names of the "orders," is given in the description immediately following the name. The word is a compound, the first part meaning "thin plates," or "scales," and the last "beak"; and it is appropriately given to species like geese and ducks which have beaks provided with notched or saw-like edges.

P. 142. "Alectorides." A derivative from the Greek through the Latin from the word for cock. Most ornithologists include this order and the two immediately following it under the single order Gallatores, or waders.

P. 145. "Figuier" (fē-gyā), Guillaume Louis. (1819—.) A French scientist. Among his numerous books is one on "Birds and Reptiles."

P. 151. "Peacock." For Scripture reference see 1 Kings 10, 22 and 2 Chronicles 9, 21. The reference in Job 39, 13 is thought to be a wrong translation. The Revised Version renders the verse, "The wing of the ostrich rejoiceth; but are her pinions and feathers kindly?"

NOTES ON REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

GOSSIP ABOUT GREECE.

1. "The Eastern Question." For a good exposition of this question see articles on "The policy of Russia," by Prof. C. K.

Adams, in the October and November issues of the present volume of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

2. "The Greeks have another safeguard which seems at first

sight not very practical. It requires an actual majority of the House to pass any law. I have known a few members, by absenting themselves toward the end of the session, to stop all legislation, and have known an astute prime minister to induce them to remain by arguments not very favorable to either side. This very large quorum is, however, clearly a safeguard against sudden or 'hole and corner' legislation."—*J. P. Mahaffy*.

3. "Thus I saw the junior proctor of the great university of Cairo carry it [the kurbash] about with him as his ensign of office. It should be made of hippopotamus hide, or some such very tough leather."—*J. P. Mahaffy*.

4. "Demarch." The word is a Greek compound from two words meaning "the people" and "to rule."

5. "I am not one of those who believe that education is the panacea for all the vices of the ignorant and needy classes. It is delightful to see the bright little Greek children coming out of school, and to make them read out and explain a page of Xenophon, as I have done more than once. (But I know all this is one sided, and that the female sex is still grossly neglected.) If these handsome and hardy children could be trained to respect field work, to resist by their votes the political schemes of the district, and to insist upon fair taxation instead of striving to become tax-gatherers, the solid body of the nation would progress as the merchants are progressing who have almost monopolized the trade of Constantinople, Smyrna, Alexandria, and are considerable people even in Manchester and London. For money made abroad, however generously bestowed upon a nation, is of no moment in comparison with the development of its own natural resources."—*J. P. Mahaffy*.

6. "St. Sophia." This "was founded by Constantine in 325, rebuilt by Justinian in 532-8, transformed into a mosque by Mohammed II. in 1453, and renovated by the architect Fossati in 1847."

7. "*Sine qua non*." A Latin expression meaning, "an indispensable condition." Its literal translation is "without which not" [anything can be]—the Latin words *potest esse* being understood.

GREEK ART.

1. "Pliny," The Elder. (23-79.) A Roman author. His full name was Caius Plinius Secundus. His only extant work is a "Natural History" in thirty-seven books, embracing astronomy, geography, botany, geology, medicine, statuary and painting. Pliny was one of those who lost their lives at Pompeii at the eruption of Vesuvius.

2. "Giotto" (jot'to). (1276-1337.) An Italian painter. He is called the regenerator of that art in Italy.

3. "Raphael," Raffaello Sanzio. (1483-1520.) A most illustrious Italian painter.

4. "The Temple of Theseus." This structure known also by the name Theseum was built to receive the bones of Theseus. It is located on a height to the north of the Areopagus, and is the best preserved of all the ancient buildings of Athens.

5. "The Painted Porch." This was a long colonnade formed of columns on one side and a wall on the other, which ran along one side of the market place. The wall was decorated with paintings.

6. "Lesche" (les'ke). This hall, or Conversation Room, was built near the Temple of Apollo.

7. "Vasari," Giorgio. (1512-1574.) An Italian artist.

8. "This story is a familiar one that tells, how, as a trial of skill, each of these artists painted a picture. Zeuxis painted a bunch of grapes held by a boy, so naturally that the birds came and pecked at the fruit. He was praised for this, but at the same time he was criticised, because it was said that, had the boy been as well painted as the fruit, the birds would not have dared to touch the paper. Parrhasius was then called upon to draw aside the curtain that concealed his picture, upon which he exclaimed, 'But the curtain is itself the picture,' and Zeuxis confessed himself vanquished, since he had only deceived birds,

while Parrhasius had deceived men. The anecdote has this value that it shows the reputation the two men enjoyed for accuracy in the representation of things."—*Clarence Cook*.

9. The following description was translated from the Italian by Clarence Cook, his edition of Lübke's "History of Art":

The Centaur Family. A picture by Zeuxis.

"In a leafy thicket filled with flowers, he painted a female centaur, the equine half of her body resting on the ground in such a way that her hind feet were seen under her crupper. The womanly half was erect, gently supporting itself on the elbow. The fore-feet were not stretched out in front, as those of a horse who is lying on his side are wont to be; but one was bent, as if she were kneeling with the hoof drawn under her; while the other, on the contrary, was lifted, and pressed upon the ground, as a horse will do when he is about to rise. With her were two little centaurs; one of them she held to her breast and nursed as if she were a human mother; the other pulled away at the mare's teat as if it were indeed a foal. In the upper part of the picture, a centaur, the husband of this centaur-ess, is seen to have left a company of his fellows with whom he is courting, and comes up, laughing, to his family. The painter does not let us see him wholly, but hides the horse-half of him with the bushy screen, and makes him hold in his right hand a lion-cub he has caught; he lifts it up as if he were trying to frighten his young ones with it. Zeuxis showed wonderful skill in the way in which he has discriminated between the different characters of the actors in his story. He made his centaur rude and stern, and somewhat clownish, with his hair in disorder, and his skin harsh and rough, not only where he was horse but where he was man, and with his face above his lifted shoulders—although it was laughing—yet altogether bestial, savage, and cruel. Thus he painted the centaur. The female was shaped like a beautiful mare—most like those of Thessaly, who are unused to bear burdens. The woman-half of her was of extraordinary beauty, excepting only the ears which the artist left hairy, and not well shaped. But the joining of the parts where the woman's body passed into that of the horse and united itself with it, not all at once by a marked division, but little by little, and insensibly changing, transformed itself from one shape to the other so gently, that the eye of the spectator could not follow it. The little centaurs were like their mother in their color; but, nevertheless, one was all his father in his roughness; and tender as he was in years, was yet withal something savage and dangerous to look at. But what everybody found very admirable was the closeness with which Zeuxis had observed nature and the ways of children; for he painted these little creatures looking steadily at the lion-cub their father held up, and yet never moving their mouths from their mother's breasts."

"Vite dei Pittori Antichi
Greci e Latini."

—*By Della Valle. Siena, 1795.*

10. "Fra Angelico." (1387-1455(?). A celebrated early Italian painter.

WHAT INVENTORS HAVE DONE FOR FARMING.

1. "Egyptian fellah." A peasant or cultivator of the soil. The plural form of the word is fellahin.

2. "*Tribulum*." The Latin name for a threshing-sledge. It was a wooden platform studded underneath with sharp pieces of flint or with iron teeth.

3. "Ryot." A word from the Arabic or Hindu meaning a tiller of the soil.

THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

1. "The Lord George Gordon rioters." Lord Gordon (1750-1793) was an English political agitator. In 1780 he presented a petition to repeal the Toleration Act passed by Parliament for the relief of the Roman Catholics in Scotland. The government paid no heed to the petition, and he called a meeting of

the Protestant Association, of which he was president, and asked them to join him and carry up the petition. Accordingly on June 2 about 60,000 people accompanied him to the Parliament, and when they still received no attention, they resorted to violence. For four days London was at their mercy. More than 450 persons were killed. On the 9th Gordon was arrested. He was acquitted at his trial; but in 1788 he was sentenced to be imprisoned at Newgate for five years for contempt of court, and died there. The quotation in the article is from Hodder's "Life of Shaftesbury," Vol. I., p. 90.

2. This quotation is from "Lunacy; its Past and its Present," by Robert Cardiner Hill, F. S. A., p. 1.

3. "It should be said that lunatic criminals and criminal lunatics are not the same, and require very different treatment. The former are those in whom lunacy precedes crime, and the latter, those in whom crime precedes lunacy."—A. G. Warner, *Ph. D.*

4. "A bill is now before the New York Legislature prescribing anew state care, but in asylums of more moderate size."—A. G. Warner.

5. "It is found that an alms-house can be more nearly self-supporting if certain classes of the insane are remanded to its care. Under proper direction they are often willing and efficient workers, and are themselves more healthy for being employed."—A. G. Warner.

SUNDAY LABOR.

The author of this essay was employed by Col. Carroll D. Wright of the Massachusetts Labor Bureau, in the fall of 1884, to investigate the facts concerning Sunday labor in that state; and the results of his work appear, under the head of "Sunday Labor," in the "Report" of that Bureau for the following year.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES FOR APRIL, 1889.

THE SUN.—Still moving northward increases the day's length by one hour and 16 minutes; rising on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 5:45, 5:28, and 5:13 a. m., respectively, and setting on the corresponding days at 6:24, 6:35, and 6:45 p. m. Declination on the 1st, $4^{\circ} 48' 43''$ north; and on the 31st, $14^{\circ} 58' 59''$ north.

THE MOON.—Sets on the 1st, at 7:44 p. m.; on the 11th, at 3:36 a. m.; and rises on the 21st, at 12:24 a. m. Enters first quarter on the 8th, at 8:39 a. m.; is full on the 15th, at 5:10 p. m.; enters last quarter on the 22nd, at 8:47 a. m.; becomes new on the 29th, at 8:57 p. m. Is farthest from the earth on the 5th, at 11:24 p. m.; and is nearest to the earth on the 17th, at 8:24 p. m.

MERCURY.—Has a direct motion of $52^{\circ} 19' 24''$; is a morning star, rising on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 5:09, 5:05, and 5:07 a. m.,

respectively. On the 25th, at 1:33 a. m., is in superior conjunction with the sun; that is, Earth, Sun, and Mercury are in the same line in the order named. On the 27th, at 1:03 p. m., crosses the ecliptic going north; on the 30th, at 7:02 a. m., is $5^{\circ} 03'$ north of the moon; diameter on the 1st, $5''.6$; on the 30th, $5''.2$.

VENUS.—Up to the 9th, has a direct motion of $1^{\circ} 07' 34''$, and from the 9th to the end of the month, a retrograde motion of $8^{\circ} 47' 45''$. Is an evening star, setting on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 9:38, 9:06, and 8:10 p. m., respectively. On the 3rd, at 12:03 a. m., is $11^{\circ} 07'$ north of the moon, and again on the 29th, at 6:00 p. m., is $10^{\circ} 15'$ north of the moon; on the 9th, at 8:21 p. m., is stationary; on the 30th, is in inferior conjunction with the sun; that is, Earth, Venus, and Sun are in line in the order mentioned. Diameter, on the 1st, $43''.2$; on the 30th, $59''.6$.

MARS.—Has a direct motion of $21^{\circ} 23' 16''$. Is an evening star, setting on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 8:03, 8:01, and 7:58 p. m., respectively. On the 1st, at 9:10 p. m., is $5^{\circ} 07'$ north of the moon; on the 5th, at 6:22 p. m., crosses the ecliptic going north; on the 30th, at 10:00 p. m., is $4^{\circ} 21'$ north of the moon. Diameter, $4''.2$.

JUPITER.—From the 1st to the 24th, has a direct motion of $50' 52''$; from the latter date to the end of the month, a retrograde motion of $5' 37''$; is a morning star, rising on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 1:18, 12:40, and 12:02 a. m., respectively. On the 20th, at 3:02 p. m., is $19'$ south of the moon; on the 24th, at 6:00 p. m., is stationary; diameter increases from $37''$ on the 1st to $40''.4$ on the 30th.

SATURN.—From the 1st to the 14th has a retrograde motion of $13' 30''$; from the 14th to the 1st of May, a direct motion of $16' 15''$. Rises on the 1st, at 1:19 p. m., and sets on the 2nd, at 3:27 a. m.; rises on the 11th, at 12:39 p. m., and sets on the 12th, at 2:47 a. m.; rises on the 21st, at 12:00 (noon), and sets on the 22nd, at 2:08 a. m.; on the 14th, at 9:00 a. m., is stationary; on the 10th, at 8:00 a. m., is $1^{\circ} 10'$ south of the moon; diameter decreases from $18''.2$ on the 1st to $17''.2$ on the 30th.

URANUS.—Has a direct motion of $1^{\circ} 10' 06''$; on March 31st rises at 7:02 p. m., and sets on the 1st, at 6:12 a. m.; on the 11th rises at 6:17 p. m., and on the 12th, sets at 5:27 a. m.; on the 21st, rises at 5:35 p. m., and on the 22nd, sets at 4:47 a. m. On the 9th, is in opposition to the sun; that is, Uranus, Earth, and Sun are in line in the order named, and Uranus rises at nearly the same time that the sun sets. Diameter, $3''.8$.

NEPTUNE.—Has a direct motion of $56' 32''$; is an evening star, setting on the 1st, 11th, and 21st, at 10:20, 9:42, and 9:04 p. m., respectively. On the 4th, at 5:24 a. m., is $2^{\circ} 05'$ north of the moon. Diameter, $2''.5$.

OCCULTATIONS (Moon).—(*Delta*)³ *Tauri*, on the 4th, from 6:21 to 7:20 p. m. (All Washington Mean Time.)

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

APPLETON'S "HAND-BOOK OF CHEMISTRY."

1. Q. What proportion of the atmospheric air does nitrogen form? A. About eighty per cent.
2. Q. Who first clearly recognized nitrogen as a constituent of the air? A. Scheele.
3. Q. What are some of the characteristics of nitrogen? A. It is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless gas.
4. Q. As a simple substance how is it characterized? A. By extreme inactivity.
5. Q. What is true of a large number of the compounds of nitrogen? A. They are noted for a high degree of activity.
6. Q. To what is this activity due? A. To their instability, the nitrogen readily letting go its hold upon other elements.
7. Q. What are the constituent elements of ammonia gas? A. Nitrogen and hydrogen.
8. Q. To what does the business world at the present time look for its supply of ammonia gas? A. To the decomposition of coal.
9. Q. What is the chief use of ammonia gas? A. The production of artificial ice.
10. Q. What most important compound is formed of nitrogen, oxygen, and water? A. Nitric acid.

11. Q. How is the atmosphere of the globe described? A. As a vast ocean of gaseous matter at the bottom of which human beings and land animals dwell.
12. Q. To what height above the earth does the air extend? A. At the height of about forty miles it becomes so highly rarefied as to practically come to an end.
13. Q. What has been shown to be the weight of a cubic yard of air? A. About two pounds.
14. Q. What purpose does the oxygen of the air serve? A. It is essential for all combustion and for animal respiration.
15. Q. What is the chief duty of the nitrogen of the air? A. To dilute the oxygen, and moderate its excessive activities.
16. Q. What service is rendered by the moisture in the atmosphere? A. Heat is retained by it, and the rays of light are refracted.
17. Q. What prevents carbon dioxide, which is produced by all ordinary processes of combustion, from constantly accumulating in the air and poisoning it? A. It forms one of the proper foods of vegetable life, and is thus consumed.
18. Q. How is the air freed from ammonia gas? A. It is absorbed by the rain, carried into the earth, and there devoured by plant life.
19. Q. Is the air a chemical compound? A. No, it is a mass of mingled gases.

20. Q. What prominent effect is produced by the mobility of the air? A. The distribution of heat.
21. Q. In what way does its elasticity make the atmosphere a useful servant to man? A. It permits the transmission of sound.
22. Q. What other marked characteristic of the air is noted? A. Its power to diffuse light.
23. Q. To what do the principal explosives largely owe their activity? A. To the presence of nitrogen.
24. Q. What are the four explosives of chief importance? A. Gunpowder, the fulminates, gun-cotton, and nitroglycerine.
25. Q. For what are explosives principally used in the arts of peace. A. For blasting purposes and for pyrotechnics.
26. Q. Which is the oldest of the explosives? A. Gunpowder.
27. Q. What are its principal constituents? A. Potassic nitrate, charcoal, and sulphur.
28. Q. What are fulminates? A. Substances so extremely unstable in chemical character that a slight blow will decompose them.
29. Q. What is gun-cotton? A. A chemical modification of ordinary cotton fiber.
30. Q. What causes the wonderful chemical change of cotton to gun-cotton? A. The action of strong nitric acid.
31. Q. How is nitroglycerine prepared? A. Glycerine is subjected to the action of nitric acid.
32. Q. In the execution of what great public works have nitroglycerine and dynamite performed the labor of armies of men? A. In the rock tunnels of Mt. Cenis and St. Gothard and in the channel of Hell Gate.
33. Q. From what is phosphorus chiefly prepared? A. Bone ashes.
34. Q. What gives rise to the great demand for phosphorus? A. The important offices it fills in animal and vegetable life.
35. Q. In what article of manufacture is phosphorus largely used? A. Friction matches.
36. Q. What advantage have safety matches—those in which red phosphorus is used—over others? A. That of saving human lives; they spare the operatives from the phosphorus disease, and others from the danger of poison.
37. Q. What are the most familiar compounds of carbon? A. Anthracite and bituminous coal.
38. Q. From what did these combustibles originate? A. They are the accumulated masses of the remains of a rank vegetation which flourished in the early history of the globe.
39. Q. What is the most wonderful form of carbon? A. The diamond.
40. Q. Under what stimulus did the slaves in Brazil prosecute their search for diamonds? A. That he who found one weighing seventeen and one half carats or more should receive his freedom.
41. Q. How does the wealth yielded by the diamond mines of Brazil compare with that realized from its agricultural productions? A. In a period of eighty years diamonds to the amount of \$17,000,000 were found, while the value of the one article of coffee exported in a single year was \$60,000,000.
42. Q. Mention two striking characteristics of carbon? A. It has the power of decolorizing liquids and of absorbing offensive gases.
43. Q. What other natural forms of carbon are found? A. Petroleum, marble, and limestone.
44. Q. What is the result of taking carbon dioxide into the lungs? Into the stomach? A. In the former case it is fatal to human life. In the latter it exerts a wholesome and stimulating effect.
45. Q. Do the chemical changes of living animals and plants differ from those observed in the mineral world? A. No, both kingdoms are governed by the same laws.
46. Q. Into what two classes are organic compounds divided? A. Crystalline and cellular.
47. Q. What is said of the chemistry of animal and vegetable substances? A. The subject is so difficult that even professional chemists are yet extremely ignorant concerning it.
48. Q. How many distinct classes of substances are produced in the manufacture of illuminating gas? A. Three: solids (coke and gas carbon), liquids (anthracene and benzole), and the gases.
49. Q. What is the characteristic element of animal and vegetable matters? A. Carbon.
50. Q. What is the characteristic element of mineral matters? A. Silicon.

STEELE'S "POPULAR ZOOLOGY."

1. Q. What is the distinguishing characteristic of the vertebrates? A. The body is supported by an internal rod which separates the nervous system from the alimentary and circulatory systems.
2. Q. To what three general divisions of this branch is the study for the present month devoted? A. Fishes, reptiles, and birds.
3. Q. What animal forms a seemingly intermediate link between the invertebrates and the vertebrates? A. The balanoglossus.
4. Q. What peculiarity is found in the class Tunicata? A. Its young members belong to the vertebrates, but later they lose all trace of the peculiarities of this order.
5. Q. What fish represents the lowest class of the vertebrates proper? A. The lancelet.
6. Q. In what class do we first meet with organs of special sense constructed on the same plan as those of man? A. The circular mouthed vertebrates?

7. Q. What famous fish belongs to the order of the rays? A. The torpedo, which on being touched gives a violent electric shock.
8. Q. What is the distinctive feature of the ganoids? A. Their bodies are covered with an armor of bony plates.
9. Q. Mention some fishes of different orders now living which belong to this class? A. The sturgeon, gar-pike, and mud fish.
10. Q. In what class are nearly all the common fishes included? A. The Teleostei.
11. Q. What remarkable feat is said to be accomplished by the common eel? A. Wandering from pond to pond across meadows.
12. Q. What was the original home of the gold fish? A. China.
13. Q. What voracious American fish destroys birds, mammals, other fishes, and even its own young? A. The pickerel.
14. Q. The brilliant coloring of what fish makes it the common prey of other fishes and of birds? A. The flying-fish.
15. Q. The importance of the "Fishery question" is shown by what report in the last census? A. That the mackerel fishery alone gave employment to more than twenty-five hundred men.
16. Q. What fish has the greatest economical value? A. The cod.
17. Q. Mention some peculiar fishes belonging to the class Teleostei? A. The sword-fish, archer, suck-fish, flat-fish, pipe-fish, and swell-fish.
18. Q. What class of vertebrates undergo a metamorphosis, gills giving place to lungs? A. Batrachians.
19. Mention some of the representatives of this class? A. Menobranchus, mud-eels, salamanders, newts, frogs, and toads.
20. Q. What special features mark the reptiles? A. Though of great variety of form and structure they all have the body scaled, and the toes, when present, provided with claws.
21. Q. To what order do all snakes belong? A. Ophidia.
22. Q. What misnomers are applied to some members of the lizard order? A. Horned toad and glass snake.
23. Q. To what order do turtles and tortoises belong? A. Chelonia.
24. Q. For what is the turtle valuable? A. Its eggs, flesh, fat, carapex, and shell.
25. Q. What animals form the highest order of reptiles? A. Crocodiles, gavials, and alligators.
26. Q. On reaching the study of birds what structural differences are first noted? A. The blood is warmer than that of all lower forms, and the body is covered with feathers.
27. Q. What great peculiarity is found in the skeleton? A. The bones are light and hollow, and yet of great strength.
28. Q. What in many instances has led to a false multiplication of species? A. The fact that after molting, the normal colors have not been at once assumed.
29. Q. What is true of the classification of birds? A. It is yet unsettled, ornithologists not having agreed even upon the number of orders.
30. Q. What birds are placed in the lowest order? A. Those which cannot fly.
31. Q. What is the largest living bird? A. The African ostrich.
32. Q. What birds are described as half fish and half bird? A. Penguins.
33. Q. What bird of the order Pygopodes has become extinct within the last half century? A. The great auk.
34. Q. What are the distinctive marks of the order Longipennes? A. Long pointed wings, palmate feet, and elevated hind toes.
35. Q. Mention some members of this order? A. The albatross, petrel, and tern.
36. Q. What is the meaning of the name given to the order to which geese and ducks belong? A. Having beaks whose margins are composed of lamellae, or thin plates, giving them a saw-like edge.
37. Q. A dish composed of the tongues of what birds were Roman gluttons fond of parading? A. Flamingoes.
38. Q. What is told illustrating the sagacity of the white stork? A. That it has been known to join children in playing hide and seek, intelligently taking its part in the game.
39. Q. To what order do our domestic fowls belong? A. Gallinae.
40. Q. What genus of this order is indigenous to America? A. The turkey.
41. Q. What member of the feathered class presents the most incongruities in its make-up? A. The peacock.
42. Q. In what peculiar manner do pigeons feed their young? A. They disgorge into their mouths a milky substance.
43. Q. What are the characteristics of the Raptores? A. Hooked beaks and powerful talons.
44. Q. What is the largest American bird of prey? A. The condor.
45. Q. In what respect do owls differ from all other birds? A. They can bring both eyes simultaneously to bear upon an object.
46. Q. What birds are probably the most intelligent? A. Parrots.
47. Q. What is a peculiarity of nearly all birds belonging to the order Picariae? A. They have their toes in pairs.
48. Q. What American bird belongs to the same group as the Eastern birds which construct edible nests? A. The chimney swallow.
49. Q. What order stands highest in the classification of birds; and what bird of this order possesses the most highly developed organization? A. The Passeres; the thrush.
50. Q. What members of this order are the best known song birds? A. The orioles, larks, song-sparrows, nightingales, mocking-birds, and robins.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

THE WORLD OF TO-DAY. THE SAMOAN ISLANDS.

1. What are the only three groups of the Polynesian Islands that are independent?
2. Give the latitude and longitude of the Samoan Islands.
3. Who gave the name of Navigator's Islands to the group, and why?
4. How many acres of cultivable land do they contain?
5. What is the estimated number of inhabitants?
6. To what race do they belong?
7. What is the religious and mental condition of the people?
8. What are the principal articles of export?
9. How long has the United States been represented at Samoa by consular agents?
10. What is the best harbor of the group and when was it placed under the protection of the United States?
11. On the death of the king of Samoa in 1869, who were the two claimants to the throne?
12. When were these two claimants proclaimed king by their adherents, and with what result?
13. What compromise between the rival factions was effected in 1875?
14. When was a convention ratified between Samoa and the United States, Great Britain, and Germany?
15. Why was an American protectorate established by the U. S. Consul in 1886?
16. Why was U. S. Consul Greenebaum asked to resign?
17. Who is Tamasese and what action in regard to him was taken May 27, 1886, on board the *Mohican*, by the German, British, and United States consuls?
18. Why was Malietoa Laupepa exiled?
19. Whom do the natives now claim as their king?
20. Who is upheld as king by the German Government?

THE COMMERCIAL VALUE OF ANIMALS.

1. What animals largely furnish the material for the various fabrics of felt?
2. From what hair are the finest shawls made?
3. From what is the hair cloth used for furniture-covers mostly woven?
4. From what are "camel's hair pencils" chiefly made?
5. For what are feathers employed in the construction of certain electrical instruments?
6. What is the derivation of the word "cornet"?
7. Are the teeth of any animals of value?
8. Of what are the famous roads in Mobile and Savannah made?
9. What part of animals is employed in making the charcoal used for filtering purposes?
10. Of what is glue mostly made?
11. What is isinglass?
12. What animal refuse found in the Chincha Islands has brought a larger revenue to Peru than all her other exports put together?
13. Of what are violin strings and archery bows made?
14. What rank does the leather industry hold in the United States?
15. Name some perfumes derived from animal sources?
16. Are egg shells of any commercial value?
17. What oil is considered of high medicinal value?
18. What was the net value of silk goods manufactured in the United States in the year 1880?
19. What use do opticians make of spider's threads?
20. What was the estimated value of all the products of the slaughtering houses of Chicago in 1885?

MICHAEL FARADAY.

1. When and where was Michael Faraday born?
2. When apprenticed to a bookbinder, what clause of his indentures shows his reputation for faithfulness?
3. While learning his trade how were his evenings and leisure hours spent?
4. How did he first attract the notice of Sir Humphry Davy?
5. When did he procure a position in the Royal Institution of Great Britain, and how long was he connected with the Institution?
6. What was the subject of his first published contribution to science?
7. What entry was made in his diary for June 12, 1821?
8. The "heavy glass" produced by Herschel and Faraday led to what two of Faraday's discoveries?
9. What achievement of Faraday's in 1831 became at once the subject of investigation by the whole scientific world?
10. What is the meaning of Faradization?
11. How is Faradic electricity obtained?
12. Why did Faraday give the name of diamagnetism to one of his discoveries?
13. Of what value to science has been his discovery of the magnetic rotation of the plane of polarized light?
14. Of how many learned societies was Faraday a member?
15. What is the date of his death?

REMAINS OF GREEK ART.

1. The noble bust of Juno in the Ludovisi Palace, Rome, is ascribed to what pupil of Phidias?
2. What is the only copy of the colossal bronze statue of Athena by Phidias, which stood on the Acropolis at Athens?
3. In the copy of Myron's statue of Marsyas in the Lateran Museum, what incorrect restoration has been made?
4. Where was the Venus de Medici found, and in what gallery may it now be seen?
5. The broken statue of Hermes with the infant Dionysos discovered at Olympia, is known to be the work of what sculptor?
6. When and where was the Aphrodite or Venus of Melos found, and where is it now?
7. What is the subject of the Phigalian marbles now in the British Museum, and from what temple were they taken?
8. What and where are the Elgin marbles?
9. What statue in the Vatican is supposed to be a copy of the famous bronze mentioned by Pliny as removed by Tiberius from the baths of Agrippa and restored because of the clamor of the people?
10. When and where was the Laocoön of the Vatican discovered?
11. Who superintended the restoration of the colossal Toro Farnese of the Naples Museum?
12. To what group is the Listening Slave of the Florence Gallery supposed to belong?
13. To what statue in the Capitoline Museum do the following lines by Byron refer:

"He leans upon his hand—his manly brow
Consents to death, but conquers agony?"

14. What celebrated group of statues, a copy of which is in the Florence Gallery, is referred to by both Horace and Pliny as the work either of Scopas or Praxiteles?
15. What and where are the most celebrated of the Greek portrait statues?

PRONUNCIATION TESTS.—VII.

She wandered down to the south-eastern part of the town to the quay, to see the fishermen's seines. She discovered there a *senile savant* with a *saturnine* countenance, wearing a *sombrero*, uttering *solecisms*, and eating *spinach*. With the utmost *sang froid* she made a *salaam* and asked him to conduct a *séance*, which the *sagacious* but *sacrilegious* fellow tried to do by offering a *sacrifice* to the spirits; but all his *suavity* did not suffice, and the *subtle* performer failed to call up the *subtle* spirits. On her return she bought as a *souvenir* a romance entitled "*Rosalind*," by an author who wrote under the *sobriquet* of "*Reveille*." The book was full of what was intended to be *salient* *raillery* and *repartee*; and there were heroines who took their *siestas*, and heroes who were under the *surveillance* of the *shiek's suite*, as well as *supple satyrs* sporting in the *soughing* wind. But she threw the book aside as not *salutary* for one who aspired to be a *littérateur*.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR MARCH.

THE DARK CONTINENT.

1. Nothing but the coast line, except at the Cape where there was a Dutch settlement; the region between Senegal and the Gambia; and Egypt which was known as far as the junction of the White and Blue Niles.
2. That of Clapperton (1822-24) who discovered Lake Tchad. He died on his second journey, but his servant Lander in 1830 reached the Niger and sailed down the river. In 1831 the Association was merged into the Royal Geographical Society, and many further discoveries were made.
3. That of Lake N'gami, followed by those of Lake N'yassa and the Victoria falls of the Zambesi.
4. Tanganyika, Victoria Nyanza, and Albert Nyanza.
5. James Gordon Bennett, editor of *The New York Herald*, in 1869.
6. At Ujiji, on the shores of Lake Tanganyika, November 10, 1871.
7. He died on the shores of Lake Bemba, of malarial fever. His body was embalmed and taken to Westminster Abbey for burial.
8. *The London Times* and *The New York Herald*.
9. He is an Arab trader of great wealth and influence, able to assemble a thousand men on short notice, and on good terms with the numerous kings in Africa. He agreed to go with Stanley sixty marches, and take 150 of his own men. By his aid they penetrated far enough to discover that the Congo and the Lualaba are one large river, the second largest in the world.
10. Making roads, establishing stations, and opening the way for commerce.
11. The governor of the Province of Equatorial Africa, one of the possessions of the Egyptian Government. He was cut off from supplies from Egypt by the revolt in the Soudan, hemmed in by hostile tribes, with insufficient ammunition to fight his way out.
12. January, 1887.
13. Nearly a thousand men.
14. The party with supplies from the Upper Congo leaving there in April was in command of Major Barttelot, who on July 19 was attacked and killed by one of his own carriers, and the expedition was abandoned.
15. August 17, 1888.

ANIMALS AS SERVANTS.

1. Reindeer, moose, wapiti.
2. Camels.
3. The camel.
4. Elephants.
5. Asses.
6. Dogs.
7. Arabian horses.
8. The llama.
9. Zebras and quag-

gas. 10. Oxen for a long period formed the favorite medium of exchange between nations. 11. The custom of using cattle (*pecus*) as currency. 12. The yak. 13. Zebu. 14. Eskimo dogs. 15. St. Bernard dogs. 16. Dogs. 17. Foxes. 18. The otter. 19. Leopards. 20. The ferret. 21. Fleas. 22. "Master of the Cormorants." 23. The Chinese quail. 24. For catching small deer, antelopes, and hares. 25. Carrier pigeons.

JOSEPH PRIESTLY.

1. At Fieldhead, England, March 13, 1733. 2. Nonconformist. 3. His father's sister, Mrs. Keighley. 4. He had acquired three modern languages, was a good classical scholar, was well versed in Hebrew, Chaldee, and Syriac, and had just begun to read Arabic. He had mastered the elements of natural philosophy and various text-books in logic and metaphysics. 5. He exchanged his early Calvinism for a system of "necessarianism,"—holding that the invariable connection of cause and effect is as inviolable in the moral as in the material world. 6. His intellectual freedom and a physical defect in speech. 7. He taught Latin and Greek and studied the sciences, especially chemistry and electricity. 8. The honorary degree of LL.D. from Edinburgh University, and admission to the Royal Society. 9. Benjamin Franklin. 10. Socinian, or anti-Trinitarian, views. 11. Oxygen. 12. Condorcet called it vital air, Scheele named it *Feuerluft*, or fire-supporting air, Lavoisier

applied to it the term oxygen. 13. Nitrous, carbonic, and sulphurous oxide, hydrochloric acid, and other important gases. 14. "Letters to Burke, occasioned by his Reflections on the Revolution in France." 15. His house was pillaged and his library, manuscripts, and scientific apparatus scattered through the streets. He escaped personal violence by flight. 16. In 1794. Northumberland, Pa. 17. The University of Pennsylvania. 18. Nearly seventy-one. 19. Almost three hundred. 20. At Oxford in 1860, and at Birmingham in 1874 on the centennial of the discovery of oxygen.

GREEK ALLUSIONS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. The "Excursion." 2. Polyphemus, the man-eater. 3. One by Saxe, one in "Midsummer Night's Dream." 4. "Lamia." 5. "That sanguine flower inscribed with woe." 6. "Birds of calm sit brooding on the charmed wave."

"O comfortable bird

That broodest o'er the troubled sea of the mind

Till it is hushed and smooth."

7. Niobe. See "Childe Harold" IV. 79. 8. Venice.

9. "Transported demigods stood round,
And men grew heroes at the sound."

10. Prometheus. 11. Helen of Troy. 12. Iphigenia. 13. Dido. 14. Castor and Pollux. 15. "Barry Cornwall."

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

MR. BRYCE'S "AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH."

If Mr. James Bryce had written nothing on America but his analysis of the National Government, he would have contributed one of the most suggestive and stimulating expositions of our Government yet written. If he had made only his examination of our State Governments he would have done a piece of work which not even an American has ever had the courage—or the insight—to undertake. If he had done nothing more than to unravel the intricate nature of our Party System he would merit our warmest gratitude for showing us its ugly knots, its weak places, and the obligations which it imposes on the individual. But more than all this is included in the "American Commonwealth." A lucid determination of the elements in that all pervading and powerful, but slippery, quantity—Public Opinion; an intensely interesting set of reflections on such themes as Woman's Suffrage, *laissez faire*, and the supposed and true faults of Democracy; and a series of compact suggestive chapters on our Social Institutions are parts of this prodigious work. Its most eminent qualities are: 1st, Its candor. Englishmen are suspected beforehand if they announce anything on America; but here is an English member of Parliament treating the American system of federal and state governments, its parties and institutions, with a fairness which no American has yet shown himself quite up to. 2d, Its clearness, which is such that the reader dashes straight ahead without re-reading, or consulting dictionaries or cyclopedias; 3d, Its helpful comparison. Mr. Bryce is thoroughly at home in Roman and modern European systems of government and he brings his knowledge in with splendid effect; 4th, His evident honest sympathy with American success, and his keen desire that the weak points in the machinery be repaired before they cause severe accident. Europeans who read Mr. Bryce will be amazed that the subject is so interesting and they will find many of their notions corrected and revised. But Americans will be even more interested. So many points on which the average citizen has never thought, are set forth skillfully and boldly that he will find it is almost a series of revelations on matters which familiar to him as part of the nature of things, he still has never comprehended. This comes from Mr. Bryce's method. He has dissected, and taken photographs of the whole American Commonwealth with no other idea than trying to find out what it is like. The series of pictures he has produced are of inestimable worth. The labor put into the book has been worthy the subject, and the ripe experience and scholarship of the author fits him to direct his labor wisely and effectively. It is no platitude to say that he who fails to read the book will be a great loser. The citizen of a free government owes it to his country and himself to study conscientiously the system by which he is protected and in which he is a factor. When he does not do this he cannot complain of its abuses. The best exposition of this system ought to be in his hand. The best exposition of the American Commonwealth in existence is by all means Mr. Bryce's.

MAX O'RELL IN THE UNITED STATES.

When it was announced that the witty author of "John Bull and his Island" was studying the subject of "Jonathan and his Continent,"† Jonathan's expectation was on the stretch; not because the study promised to be a deep and serious one with any instructive value, but because the pictures of the daily life and social habits of Americans when drawn by a wide-awake foreigner with a keen sense of humor, are always amusing. In a rapid spin through the country, few men could have seen more, neither could they have told it in so bright and audacious a style. Yet evidently much of his knowl-

edge is not gained at first hand, and statements of surprising inaccuracy are made with as much gravity as jokes of the grandfathers are credited to their children. The covers of the book are in almost as poor taste as the costume of a lady he describes as appearing on the street in a purple dress and light blue bonnet. The work of translation by Madame Blouët is admirably done.

VICTOR HUGO'S NOVELS.

The necessity which nature, law, and superstition impose and the crushing injustice of many systems of government, take vastly different coloring in different minds. To one they are simply facts to be stolidly accepted, to another wonderments to be placed among the things which reverent minds not being able to understand are willing to leave to God, to still others they are unrighteous, maddening barriers which it is a duty to proclaim and struggle against. Such was Victor Hugo's attitude toward necessity and injustice. There are six of his works which are at once pre-eminently his novels of fatality and of protest. They are "Notre Dame de Paris," where the fatality of superstition is the theme, "Les Misérables," in which law is portrayed as an irresistible force, "The Toilers of the Sea," where nature is the unyielding master, "By Order of the King," the story of the English feudal system, "Ninety-Three," a picture from the French Revolution, and "The History of a Crime," the story of Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état* in '51. It is in these six works* that Victor Hugo is undoubtedly the strongest. He was a giant in imagination, and here, fired by his outraged sense of justice and longing for a struggle, his power is let free; as a result we find in them those famous thrilling pictures which are generally selected to illustrate his powers; such as the cannon loose on ship-board and its capture, the struggle of Gilliatt with the devil fish, Jean Valjean's marvelous escapes, and Quasimodo swinging from the bell rope. They illustrate too his power in reproducing historic scenes, largely a power of imagination, and furnish those admirable examples, his description of the field of the battle of Waterloo, and of the French Convention in '93. In them his volcanic style reaches its height. Nowhere are his sentences so brief—a sure sign with Hugo that his mind is at white heat—his sarcasm so keen, his scorn so withering, his figures so vivid. The reader cringes before the furious, word-cannonading as he would before a line of rifles. The best of Hugo's quotable sentences are to be found in these works. Their characters—or rather personifications—one or two traits in a human figure can not be called a character—are his noblest, including Jean Valjean, the man who lived down his past, Javert and Cimourdain, pictures of the cruelty of abstract justice, Gauvain, the warrior with a heart, Esmeralda, Quasimodo, Radoub.

A study of these volumes leaves the reader no doubt about the source of Hugo's genius. It was in his imagination that his power lay. Whatever he laid hold of was magnified until it hid everything else from sight. When he contemplated the necessity of nature he saw no compensating fact, no modifying agents. Nature hurled his victim relentlessly to his fate. Javert, the personification of abstract justice, was immovable. Cimourdain could take his own life but he would not yield. Neither reason nor truth is in such a presentation. It must be taken purely as a work of imagination. But these looming, isolated pictures are powerful in their effects and will continue to be regarded, we believe, among the strongest literary productions of the nineteenth century.

THE STORY OF THE NATIONS.

The Series of the "Story of the Nations" is rapidly swelling its numbers, three new volumes having been issued very recently. Professor Rogers could have had no more inviting study assigned him as his part in the under-

*The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce. In Two Volumes. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1889. Price, \$6.00.

†Jonathan and his Continent. By Max O'Rell and Jack Allyn. Translated by Madame Paul Blouët. New York: Cassell and Co. Limited. Price, \$1.50.

*Victor Hugo's Novels. 6 Volumes. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Price, \$9.00.

taking than writing the history of Holland.* He constantly keeps in the very fore-front of his story the lesson on the value of liberty in its widest sense, given by that heroic little nation. All the events of its earlier history tend to this as a culminating point; while from this eminence a radiance is shed on its subsequent history, which shines all the brighter by contrast as it is now seen across the last sixty years of its humiliation. Having copious records from which to draw, the author has wisely and skillfully compared, chosen, condensed, and then built into the well-constructed story.—The volume on Mediæval France † holds a worthy place in the series. In an animated style the author gives a plain and well connected account of a period beginning with the tenth, and closing (in spite of the fact that the title page says with the eighteenth) with the beginning of the sixteenth century. The reader can but regret that the story does not continue so as to include this discrepancy of two centuries, for what has gone before but whets the desire to have more. The genealogical and chronological tables given are accurate and valuable; but the Glossary of Mediæval Words contains too many expressions that are translated only into Latin or modern French to make it of much use in a book designed for a popular English work. This and the frequency throughout of untranslated French words mar the production.—The romantic interest attaching to the land of the Montezumas and the deep pathos shutting in the golden air-castles of the ill-fated Maximilian make of Mexico a rich theme for the historian. Susan Hale in retelling the story ‡ aimed to have it lose in her version none of the fascination imparted to it by other writers, and succeeded in all points save one,—her book is too crowded. A judicious rejection of many of her finely told incidents and a corresponding dilation of others would have added to the reader's enjoyment, as for instance if she had omitted some of the older legends and devoted more than two pages to the *noche triste*. Thoroughly familiar with the present condition of the land, and having followed closely the records of the most trustworthy writers, she has made accuracy one of the greatest merits of her book.

PRACTICAL ART BOOKS.

"The Intellect finds itself confronted by art as an enormous fact which can no more be denied than commerce and navigation." So says Philip Gilbert Hamerton in one of his "Portfolio Papers." ¶ Now how is the multitude to form any accurate and satisfactory idea of art? Few receive an art education, few have access to galleries or collections. How is it to be understood? We know no safer way than trusting one's self to such a guide as Mr. Hamerton. He writes of art in a clear, concise style and always as if it were a common domain of which everybody may know something, instead of being a castle requiring a peculiar rank, mind, and training to be entered. He writes to inform and presumes little previous knowledge. He has plenty of common sense and knows what he is talking about. These qualities fit him to serve people who want correct ideas of art, and can get them only by general reading. In the present book of random papers there is much of suggestiveness particularly in the Notes on Aesthetics. The studies of artists, of which the book contains five, are also useful reading for beginners. But before reading Mr. Hamerton even, we should advise one undertaking art readings to take up Mr. Van Dyke's "How to Judge of a Picture." § It is an unpretentious attempt to define and practically illustrate Color, Harmony, Tone, Light and Shade, Perspective and Atmosphere, Values, indeed all the essential elements of a picture. Anybody can read it understandingly, that is it takes nothing for granted in the reader and where it illustrates by pictures it adds illustrations from nature which are even more effective. It is pleasant reading, too, as well as useful. There is a prospect that this volume will go into the Chautauqua course for next year, and we heartily hope it may.

LATE STORIES.

The latest feats of Frank Stockton's active imagination have been collected under the title of "Amos Kilbright and Other Stories." ¶ Nothing more productive of interesting situations could be conceived than the materialization of a spirit who had been for one hundred years an inhabitant of the spirit world. With such a realistic air are his experiences told that the probability of it is not questioned; and when finally he is beyond the danger of dematerialization, there is a feeling of relief. The two expositions in "Dusky Philosophy" are as entertaining as any the most sensational and clerical "brudder" possibly could evolve. The two other stories, "The Reversible Landscape" and "Plain Fishing" have the usual flavor of this writer's stories.—Although "First Harvests" ** disclaims the possession of a moral, the moral is there nevertheless. In the faithful picture of life in an ultra-fashionable circle with its mingling of aims true and false, of lives high and low, there is more force and suggestiveness than in a sermon on pomps and vanities. Many a clever aphorism and worldly-wise maxim

may be found on the pages, not coming from the lips of the characters but from the racy narrator. The style shows a decided advance on his previous writings in qualities that go to make up a literary workman.—Mary Harriott Norris undertook a large task when she attempted to give in a brief historical story* an idea of the language, dress, manners, social customs, and to present strongly the rise of Methodism, emphasizing the character of the Wesleys, as well as the contemporary historical personages of the latter half of the eighteenth century; but the result is a wonderfully attractive book. The life of this period is described by a young girl who is just entering society, and with a charming freshness and *naïveté* she gives her impressions on meeting such celebrities as Sir Joshua Reynolds, Horace Walpole, the Wesleys, Hannah More, the author of "Evelina," the Sheridans, and even the famous charlatan Count Cagliostro, and with delightful ingenuousness she at the same time tells her own romance. The author's object in this work—"to assist young Methodists to a better comprehension of the versatility, statesmanship, high breeding, and profound piety of John Wesley, and to incite study of the great religious movements of this time"—we are sure will be attained.—The last of Miss Murfree's stories † is very much in the vein of her former works; the same strong local color, the same rough, distinctive, fascinating characters, the same slow-moving plot with its pathetic picture of superstition, revenge, and pettiness. "The Despot of Broomsedge Cove" is as good a work as "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains" or "In the Clouds"—and they are very good—but it does not interest as strongly those who have been reading Miss Murfree from the beginning. It is in the same key and the repetition is growing tiresome. This fact and the one glaring fault of her style—too much description—described by an irreverent critic, as "her habit of dragging the moon back and forth over the mountains in every chapter" hurt the flavor of the present work. We wish Miss Murfree would widen her range, leave the mountains and go down into the valleys. She has made an invaluable addition to our purely American novels by introducing these Tennessee Mountaineers, but why tie herself there.—And still the wonder grows as each new work of W. D. Howells comes out, how such common every-day people can be made at all interesting (we are sure we wouldn't find them so if they were our neighbors), and that one can take delight in the unwinding of their mental processes is even more surprising—in fact, they are so natural that at times they even become a little stupid. The working out of a type of New England womanhood is cleverly done in the character of Annie Kilburn. ‡ She is a young woman who after having spent years abroad, returns to her native town; her attempts to affiliate with her townsmen, her desire to work for them and elevate them, combined with her lack of adaptability, and a conscience peculiarly sensitive, lead her into many ridiculous positions which seem inexcusable unless one carefully follows the author's skillful analysis of her motives; and this with the portrayal and dissection of several other characters furnish the reader with thoughtful entertainment.

A USEFUL ATLAS.

So great an amount of useful information was never more compactly placed and more conveniently arranged than that to be found in Cram's "Universal Atlas." ¶ It contains not only a complete line of finely executed maps showing all the different countries of the world as they exist to-day, but, connected with each leading country, there is also a series of maps showing the stages of its historical development. Besides these there are maps of the chief cities of the world. The methods adopted, for presenting history, especially in the department devoted to the United States, greatly simplify the study of this branch and help students in locating facts. Full diagrams and tables of statistics enable them readily to inform themselves concerning any of the great interests of the times. Particularly deserving of mention is the concise history of the political parties of this country. The department given to astronomy forms a full and clear reference book on this subject, with its charts, star-maps, and many pages of reading matter.

MISCELLANEOUS.

In his volume "On the Senses, Instincts, and Intelligence of Animals," § Sir John Lubbock presents a series of his personal observations made mostly on insects for the purpose of learning especially how external objects affect them and how far their perceptions resemble those of the human race. While specialists will most enjoy the book, entering as it does largely into the technicalities of natural history, yet there is much to delight unscientific readers. Interspersed with the deeper studies are many amusing and curious incidents, and the happy style of the author's writing goes far toward making the book a popular one.

A series of vivid sketches descriptive of the present times and interspersed with brief references to past history is found in "The Capitals of Spanish America." ¶ The city of Mexico is the subject of the opening chapter. The

* The Story of Holland. By James E. Thorold Rogers.

† The Story of Mediæval France. By Gustave Masson.

‡ The Story of Mexico. By Susan Hale. (The Story of the Nation Series). New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.50 each.

¶ Portfolio Papers. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1889. Price, \$2.00.

§ How to Judge of a Picture. By John C. Van Dyke. New York: Chautauqua Press. Phillips & Hunt. 1888. Price, 75 cents.

¶ Amos Kilbright. His Adversitious Experiences. With Other Stories. By Frank R. Stockton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, cloth edition, \$1.25.

** First Harvests. A Satire without a Moral. By F. J. Stimson (J. S. of Dale). New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$1.25.

* A Damsel of the Eighteenth Century: or, Ciceley's Choice. By Mary Harriott Norris. New York: Phillips & Hunt. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, \$1.00.

† The Despot of Broomsedge Cove. By Charles Egbert Craddock (Mary W. Murfree). Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889. Price, \$1.25.

‡ Annie Kilburn. By W. D. Howells. Price, \$1.50. New York: Harper and Brothers.

§ Cram's Universal Atlas, Geographical, Astronomical, and Historical. New York, No. 19 Park Place: George F. Cram.

¶ On the Senses, Instincts, and Intelligence of Animals. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

¶ The Capitals of Spanish America. By William Eleroy Curtis. Illustrated. New York: Harper and Brothers. Price, \$3.50.

government and its personnel, the people and their customs, and the leading institutions are the prominent topics of the sketch, which is very clever and readable. Among the most interesting chapters is the one on Patagonia, the state that was, but is no more. Its recent history invests it with a peculiar interest, and Mr. Curtis graphically sets forth its partition and the forcible taking possession of its estates by its two more powerful neighbors, Chili and the Argentine Republic, in spite of its own protestations. Mr. Curtis was appointed Secretary of the South American Commission by President Arthur, and thus had the best of opportunities for gathering the material for his book. The ability and energy fitting him so well for that position served him equally well as an author, and have left their impress upon the book.

The Easter books brought out by Frederick A. Stokes and brother (New York), though not novel are in excellent taste. Some favorite poem appropriate to the season, accompanied by the usual style of illustrations, the covers gaily decorated with butterflies or Easter lilies, form the pretty and dainty souvenirs.

Two valuable books for a Sunday-school library are "Simon Jasper"* and "Ceil's Knight."† The former is a story of humble life in Cornwall, the land of which its author Rev. Pearse loves to write and writes so well. In it he gives in a charming manner clear views of the quaint customs of this people, and brings out in a strong light the true beauty of a noble character. The book affords a fine study on folk-lore, and gives some interesting bits of history. "Ceil's Knight" is the touching story of a brave boy who struggled through hardships and came out at the end a truer knight than those of the olden time whom he had always so greatly admired. It is an ideal story, full of uplift. No one can read it without having the nobler impulses stirred.

*Simon Jasper. By Mark Guy Pearse. New York: Phillips & Hunt. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, 90 cents.

†Ceil's Knight. By E. B. Hollis. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell. Price, \$1.25.

A new book for a teacher's reference library is among the recent publications. For those who cannot afford to have one of the large general cyclopedias this work will be a useful one, and in specific cases it might even serve a better purpose than the former. It has been prepared especially for those directly interested in educational work, and presents in a creditable manner all matters pertaining to their calling. Outline historical sketches of the different systems pursued, and of leading educators, are given, and accounts of the reform measures which have been undertaken. The topics are alphabetically arranged, and, as a general thing, well classified. In a few instances greater care might have been taken in the references; one is nettled at not finding the word "Volapük" in its proper place, but after a moment's thought having turned to "Universal language" must confess himself satisfied with the concise though very clear exposition given. Among the best treated topics is the one on "Universities," containing comprehensive accounts of the leading institutions of that character in the different countries. The book only aims to give telescopic views of matters. It contains a fine bibliography of pedagogy.

The new series of Harper's School Readers† possesses many excellent features. Great skill is shown in the manner in which the first lessons are presented to the children and in the admirable system of gradation. Full directions are given to the teacher, which if followed cannot fail to render the difficult process of learning to read, a delight. All of the lessons presented, and they possess great variety both in matter and in style, are marked for their literary excellence. Special attention has been given to historical and scientific subjects. Each volume is provided with word lists and with vocabularies having the pronunciation marked in the first two books; and in the following two, the definitions also are given. All the volumes are profusely and finely illustrated, printed in clear type on good paper, and neatly bound in serviceable covers.

*Sonnenschein's Cyclopaedia of Education. Edited and arranged by Alfred Ewen Fletcher. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.

†Harper's Educational Series. First Reader. Second Reader. Third Reader. Fourth Reader. New York: Harper & Brothers.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR FEBRUARY, 1889.

HOME NEWS.—February 1. The Senate rejects the British extradition treaty.—The House passes the Oklahoma Bill and adopts the conference report on the bill to create a Department of Agriculture.

February 2. The House passes the Naval Appropriation Bill.—Buffalo suffers a \$3,000,000 fire.

February 6. The House adopts the conference report on the Nicaragua Canal Bill.—End of the Brooklyn street-car strike.

February 9. The Senate passes the Fortifications Bill and the bill to establish a United States Court in Indian Territory.

February 11. The Senate passes a bill appropriating \$250,000 for the protection of American interests in Panama.

February 12. The Senate passes the Naval Appropriation Bill.

February 13. In joint meeting of both branches of Congress the electoral vote is counted, and Benjamin Harrison and Levi P. Morton officially declared elected President and Vice-President.—The American Newspaper Publishers' Association holds its annual meeting in New York City.

February 18. The Senate passes the House Census Bill.—The Park Central Hotel, of Hartford, Conn., is destroyed by a boiler explosion; twenty-two lives lost.

February 19. The Cotton Palace of New Orleans is opened.

February 20. Both Houses pass the bill admitting into the Union North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington.—The Direct Tax Bill is sent to the President.

February 22. The Sundry Civil and Agricultural Bills are passed by the Senate.

February 25. President-elect Harrison starts from Indianapolis on his journey to Washington.

February 26. The Army Appropriation Bill is passed by the Senate.

FOREIGN NEWS.—February 1. The German Government orders the withdrawal of the order by which Samoa was placed under martial law.—A strike of 3,000 seamen at Glasgow, Scotland.

February 3. Fourteen persons are killed in a railway accident in Belgium.

February 4. Opening of the Montreal Ice Carnival.

February 5. Crown Prince Rudolf is buried with royal honors.

February 6. The steamer *Glencoe*, of Glasgow, is sunk by a collision, and fifty-two lives lost.

February 11. The Constitution of the Japanese Empire is proclaimed.

February 14. The French Ministry resigns.

February 19. The authorship of the letters on "Parnellism and Crime," is disclosed in the proceedings before the Parnell Commission.

February 20. Mr. Gladstone returns to London from his trip to Italy.

February 21. A new French Cabinet is formed.—British Parliament re-assembles.

February 26. Marriage of the Emperor of China.

February 28. The French Government suppresses the Patriotic League for acts hostile to the peace of France.

A NEW ASSEMBLY.

A new Chautauqua Assembly will open its first session at Albany, Georgia, on March 25. The program has been prepared under the direction of Drs. A. E. Dunning and W. A. Duncan, both intimately connected with the original Chautauqua, and familiar with assembly work. Among those who have been secured as speakers may be mentioned, Dr. R. R. Meredith, of Brooklyn, Drs. McArthur and Behrends, of New York, and Dr. J. W. Hamilton, of Boston, from the North, and such well-known Southern orators as Gov. John B. Gordon and Mr. Henry W. Grady. Dr. H. R. Palmer will have charge of the Musical Depart-

ment; Dr. Dunning will conduct the Sunday-school Normal work; while Dr. W. G. Anderson, will direct a school of "Physical Development." The railways have been generous in the matter of excursion rates, so that, with its corps of speakers and instructors, the Georgia Chautauqua ought not only to attract people from the immediate vicinity, but to draw from Northern homes those who would gladly combine the enjoyment of an excellent six days' program with a tour of the Southern country. Mr. H. McIntosh, secretary and superintendent, will furnish detailed announcements to all who desire them.

C. L. S. C. GRADUATES—CLASS OF '88.

The names of the graduates in the seventh class of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, that of 1888, are printed below. With this class the total number of persons having finished the C. L. S. C. course, is raised to 18,026. The territory over which the class is scattered is as wide as ever, and is divided as follows: Ala., 14; Ark., 9; Cal., 72; Canada, 89; Colo., 27; Conn., 163; Dak., 15; Del., 11; D. C., 25; Fla., 12; Ga., 7; H. I., 1; Idaho, 5; Ill., 283; Ind., 119; Iowa, 149; Kan., 122; Ky., 29; La., 2; Mass., 513; Md., 23; Me., 147; Mich., 140; Minn., 102; Miss., 5; Mo., 60; Mont., 6; Neb., 75; Nevada, 6; N. H., 76; N. J., 136; N. M., 1; N. Y., 540; N. C., 9; Ohio, 216; Oregon, 15; Pa., 381; R. I., 106; S. C., 3; Tenn., 6; Texas, 16; Utah, 4; Vt., 76; Va., 6; Wash., 21; W. Va., 12; Wis., 99; Wyo., 1.

ALABAMA.
Gilder, Benjamin Franklin
Heniz, Carrie
Johnston, Mrs. Maggie K.
Knott, Lizzie
McBryde, Mrs. Julia Horton
McCaw, Maggie Russell
Miller, Mrs. Emma R.
Roberts, Miss Della
Roberts, Rev. Joseph P.
Savage, Amelia Locklin
Sims, Clara McCaw
Uiter, Frank D.
Wells, Lizzie H.
Wolff, Elisor Octavia

ARKANSAS.
Blakeney, Miss Mattie W.
Edmonson, Luella Thomas
Fletcher, Mary E.
Lewis, Stephen D.
Longley, Frances E.
Marshall, Mrs. Cora Cross
Terpening, Frank A.
Turner, Abram G.
Wolcott, Emily C.

CALIFORNIA.
Abbott, Mrs. William
Allen, Mrs. John
Anthony, Rev. C. V.
Beane, Mrs. Celia M.
Bixby, Mrs. Adelaide C.
Bixby, Edward Marcellus
Boynton, Annie Pamela
Briggs, Annie E.
Brown, Mrs. Alberta
Caswell, Mrs. E. W.
Comstock, Mrs. Ellen P.
Conover, Flora
Cooke, Harriet Emily
Danks, Caroline Samuella D.
Danks, Joseph Carrier
Davis, M. Carrie
Dennett, Ida M.
Duvall, Annie T.
Elias, Miss Cora
Evans, A. S.
Finnie, Belle J.
Fleming, Samuel J.
Gardner, Mrs. Mary A.
Grant, George W.
Grant, Maria D.
Griffiths, Emma
Haistead, Florence P.
Harris, Mrs. Nettie P.
Henry, California R.
Henry, J. H.
Hersum, Miss Nettie
Hill, Mrs. James H.
Hussey, Ida E.
Kimball, Mrs. Emily L.
Kimball, Sylvester E.
Levy, Miss Julia
Lobdell, Lina
Matteson, Mrs. Hannah
McCray, Ella Lamore
McCray, Mrs. F. P.
McPhail, Miss Elizabeth A.
Moore, Frank
Morrison, Eva L.
Murphy, Charles H.
Nettleton, Charles P.
North, Mrs. Emeline M.
Ollason, Mary E.
Ollason, Sinclair
Ordway, Salome E.
Parrott, Retta
Ralston, Martha Elizabeth
Robinson, Rhoda H.
Rogers, Joseph D.
Rogers, Mrs. Lydia A.
Sanford, L. S.
Schroth, Ellen I.
Schroth, Lucy A.
Schroth, Mariha E.
Simons, Anna E.
Stambaugh, Miss Lowe
Stedman, Mrs. Laura
Stewart, Miss Fannie
Storey, Ellen D.
Swift, Mrs. Sarah L.
Swift, Mrs. Mary H.
Van Cleave, Belle Z. Gird
Waite, Mrs. Z. May
Wallace, Ida E.
Whiteside, Mary E.
Whittier, Minerva F.
Widner, Bell S.
Wilson, Mrs. Augusta D.

COLORADO.
Bartlett, Kate M.
Battis, Edward M.
Battis, Lucy A.

Church, Mrs. S. E.
Cole, Emma E.
Corson, Mrs. Clara A.
Coughenour, D. R.
Dunkel, Jennie Chapman
Elliott, Mrs. Fanny
Farnsworth, Mary R.
Galloway, Lillian B.
Haskins, Mrs. Jennie E.
Hauser, Mrs. Hattie Sargent
Hoyt, Mrs. Emma Annis
Kimball, Mrs. Frances Ayers
Loynachan, Miss Margaret
Munn, Mrs. M. Matilda
Palmer, Mrs. Flora D.
Perkins, Mrs. I. B.
Piper, Jane Roots
Reed, Mrs. Annie L.
Ricker, Mrs. Josie P.
Sayre, Mrs. Alfred
Silvins, Mrs. Jennie Gould
Weaver, Albert P.
Wilford, Alvaretta

CONNECTICUT.
Adams, Abalena H.
Adams, Susan Ann
Agard, Edward E.
Allen, Annie Eliza
Allen, Constance Eugenia
Andrews, Mrs. Jennie E.
Arnold, Hattie C.
Arnold, Lucy P.
Arnold, Mary Elizabeth
Attleton, Salome Loomis
Atwell, George C.
Bailey, Frank H.
Barrows, Miss Annette E.
Becher, George Hoxie
Bennett, Mrs. Mira
Bevin, Mrs. Mary A. Brown
Bigelow, Lucy A.
Bishop, Mrs. Janet Charlotte
Bishop, Mrs. N. L.
Bishop, Mrs. Nellie W.
Blackmar, Hattie S.
Breckenridge, Flora A.
Brewer, Mrs. Josephine J.
Bristol, Miss Emma Adella
Bristol, Harriet Houghton
Bulkley, Ella S.
Burr, Gertrude Ednie
Burr, Lillie Arabella
Butrick, Isabella A.
Cable, Miss Mary E.
Case, Marietta S.
Cauley, Annie
Clark, Miss Helen Elizabeth
Clark, M. Louise
Cleaveland, Elbert A.
Cogswell, Mary Kate
Colcord, Lizzie E. Bacon
Cone, Mary B.
Corthell, Mrs. Amelia M.
Cotter, Miss Hattie M.
Craft, Juliet H.
Cunningham, Miss Jennie T.
Day, Sibyl Mary
Denison, Miss Sarah A.
Dewing, Mary B.
Dexter, Lizzie Harriet
Dickerman, Carolyn Eliza
Dickerman, Laura Louisa
Dixon, Mrs. Martha R.
Egan, E. Winfield
Eaton, Carrie E.
Eaton, Martha Smith
Eaton, Mrs. S. M.
Fanning, Nettie B.
Fessenden, Marcia G. A.
Fish, Julia A.
Ford, Howard George
Gardner, Adeline A.
Gillette, Mary Elizabeth Sears
Glidden, Rev. K. B.
Glover, Elizabeth M.
Glover, Jr., George
Goodwin, Miss Alice Frances
Hall, Addie Annie
Hall, Mrs. Laura Hale
Hall, Russell Lewis
Hanson, Jennie Ryalena
Hill, Mrs. Elizabeth S.
Hotchkiss, Minnie E.
Howe, Annie I.
Jenkins, Lillie M.
Jenkins, William Gurney
Jones, Laura Graham
Judd, Jerome

Kellogg, Mrs. A. A.
Kingsley, Mrs. Belle S.
Kinne, Mrs. Ida W.
Knapp, Elizabeth Bonney
Lathrop, Mrs. Thomas C.
Lee, Mrs. Ellen Comstock
Lee, Miss Lizzie B.

Lee, Mary Sheffield
Lester, Mrs. Mary E.
Lester, Mary F.
Loomis, Clara K.
Luce, Mrs. Edward
Maine, Samuel F.
Maynard, Mattie C.
McCloud, Nellie Grace
Mead, Esther Anna
Mead, Sarah H.
Miller, Louisa E.
Millington, Henry Charles
Miner, Mary J.
Miner, Mrs. C. C.
Mitchell, Alice M.
Moore, Nannie J.
Morehouse, John Lewis
Nelson, Julius
Newell, Mrs. Maria C.
Nichols, Nellie E.
Nichols, Sarah E.
Noyes, George Frederic
Orcutt, Mrs. Carrie S.
Paddock, Aland B.
Paddock, Mrs. Flora S.
Palmer, Clara E.
Palmer, Grace
Parrott, Hattie Garland
Pease, Edwin S.
Peck, Caradott B.
Peck, Emma H.
Pepin, Denmore E.
Perkins, Mrs. Thomas A.
Phipps, Kate E.
Pilling, Mrs. Helen M.
Porter, Miss Fannie Amelia
Porter, Miss Mary Florence
Rice, Mrs. Lyman
Roberts, Miss Jennie Burr
Robinson, Jane Esther
Rogers, Henrietta Frances P.
Rcos, Miss Louise
Skinner, Jennie
Smith, Miss Fannie A.
Smith, Miss Mary J.
Stanton, Clara
Stevens, Carrie A.
Stevenson, George R.
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Taylor, Mrs. Minerva C.
Temple, Mrs. Hattie A.
Terry, Mary Fitch
Thayer, Mrs. Adaline B.
Thomas, Miss Caroline S.
Thresher, Mrs. S. S.
Thresher, Seneca S.
Trusdell, Mrs. Eugenie H.
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Tuttle, Mary Edith
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Tyler, Mrs. Wm. S.
Walker, Mrs. E. J.
Washburn, Georgiana A.
Way, Edith Grace
Weaver, Mrs. Rubie L.
Webster, Helen Maria
Webster, Lillian M.
Welch, Pierce Noble
Westcott, Miss Almira E.
Whitcomb, Miss Lydia B.
White, Anna L.
White, Mrs. Caroline
Whittlesey, Mrs. Jennie A.
Willcox, Mary E.
Williams, Rosalie F. A.
Wilson, Anna S.
Witter, Mrs. Wm.
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Wohlfiarth, Julia Helen
Wright, Mima M.
Young, Mary A.

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Kerr, Robert Floyd
Lee, Mrs. T. W. P.
Palmer, Miss Rosina H.
Reynolds, Mrs. Lucy M.
Souther, Mrs. M. Ella

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Bryan, Mary Smith
Downard, Henry Clay
Hoffecker, Emma Castilla
Jackson, Lucy J.

Pickels, Martha Felding
Pickels, Sallie Billany
Robinson, Mrs. H. C.
Thompson, Mary W.
Weldin, Mrs. Emma L.
Weldin, Sarah Rebecca

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Fague, Miss Hettie H.
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Gray, Mrs. Cornelia Tuthill
Gresham, Fannie Williams
Kern, Alice L.
McKim, Mary Eliza
Morris, Phoebe R.
Ordway, Miss Jeanie E.
Ordway, Mrs. John L.
Pierson, Jessie Imogene
Rowe, Louise Matilda
Rowe, Mary Elizabeth
Shields, Miss Annie F.
Shreve, Mary Cordelia
Townsend, Mrs. Caroline S.
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Wade, Miss Alice
Wilkinson, Emma Taylor
Wise, Miss Harriet Louisa
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Woodward, Wm. Redin

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de Rouilhac, Miss Fannie
Freeborne, Matilda T.
Freeborne, Thomas W.
McLean, Ad Anderson
McLean, M. A., Rev. C. C.
Pasco, Frederick
Thomas, Mrs. Nannie D.
Thorpe, Emma S.
Washburn, Mrs. Sarah A.

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Hughes, Andrew Jackson
Hull, Mrs. E. P.
Nicholes, Henry Morton
Redwine, Ben L.
Sanders, Mrs. Sallie Cooper
Steele, Mrs. J. T.

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Hall, William A.
Lee, Emma Smith
Richie, Mary A.
Strahorn, Carrie Adell

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Allyn, Chauncey D.
Anderson, Nellie Hamilton
Altwood, Mary E.
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Ault, Mrs. Maggie
Ayres, Mrs. Laura H.
Baker, Mrs. Clara H.
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Barnum, Mary D. C.
Barnum, W. L.
Bates, Guinefred S.
Bayne, Miss Mary
Beattie, Mary Isabella
Belden, Mrs. H.
Benedict, Lizzie W.
Benton, Elmer E.
Biddle, Miss Sarah Melissa
Birchfield, Mollie E.
Blackstone, Miss Anne L.
Blanchard, Fannie
Bogart, Mrs. Harriet E.
Boring, Chas. O.
Breckenridge, Harriet G.
Breedon, Mrs. Emma Ladd
Brewer, Mrs. Mel
Brewer, Miss Roberta A.
Bris, Miss Belle
Briggs, Isabella Ella
Bristol, Lorie Belle
Brooks, Lavina A.
Brown, Mrs. Helen Shepard
Bryden, Agness
Bunn, Martha E.
Burich, James Madison
Burich, Mrs. Phebe F.
Burton, Mrs. Chas. S.
Bush, Isabelle Lincoln

Carrier, Florence A.
Catlin, Matilda A.
Chaffee, Alice Bell
Chamberlain, W. R.
Chamberlin, Mrs. Mary L.
Chapman, Mrs. Emma R.
Cherrill, Mrs. Susan Agnes
Clover, Flora C.
Cochran, Mrs. Flora K.
Comstock, Kate A.
Corwin, Cora M.
Covey, Clark C.
Cox, Belle M.
Coy, Miss Emma
Cragin, Mrs. William P.
Craig, Abbie Jewett
Crapp, William
Crossland, Emma
Curtis, Hattie M.
Cutler, Mrs. Mary J.
Davis, Catharine J.
Dawdy, Amelia M.
Dean, Miss Alice H.
De Lagneau, Miss Lea R.
Dodge, Susan E.
Doig, Mary
Doocy, Mrs. Clara L.
Dugdale, Mrs. Mattie R.
Dunlevy, Carrie Amelia
Dunlevy, Osmer Miles
Durham, Georgia B.
Edwards, Mrs. Alice L.
Edwards, Mrs. Metta B.
Elliott, Mary Tupper
Enos, Miss Albertine
Evans, H. Edward
Fahs, Elina M.
Farnam, Lillian O.
Farson, Clara M. J.
Fay, Della A.
Feagins, Amanda
Feeling, L. Blanche
Finch, Miss Emma
Fisher, Miss Fannie Fern
Foute, Mary C.
Ford, Emma Irene
Foster, Mrs. B. F.
Foster, Carrie Bolles
Foster, Myrtle J.
Fredericksen, Ada M.
Gardner, Jennie P.
Gardner, Jessie S.
Gifford, Miss Mary
Gill, Mrs. Mary E.
Goddard, Mrs. Virginia B.
Going, Zenas Harmon
Goodale, Mrs. Lida U.
Goss, Matie Lathrop
Gough, Sarah M.
Griffin, Hattie M.
Grove, Dorothea M. F.
Gruey, Henrietta L. W.
Hall, Carrie A.
Hall, Mrs. Julia E.
Hall, Mary Beatrice
Hardy, Miss Emma
Harned, Mrs. Kittie S.
Harwood, Raoul Armine
Head, Mrs. S. Ella
Hear, Miss Jennie Ellenor
Helms, Mrs. J. W.
Helmer, Joseph W.
Holglund, Mrs. W. K.
Hoagland, Robert Higbee
Holmes, Clara I.
Hood, Mrs. Helen M.
Howell, Content B.
Huffnagle, John Louis
Hunter, John W.
Hurley, Minnie C.
Jackson, Ella H.
Jenkins, Anna
Jenks, Miss Clarissa
Jenks, Ella L.
Jenks, Louise
Johnson, Belle
Jonsson, Clara Browning
Johnson, Clarissa C.
Jones, Miss Emma Frances
Jutius, Mrs. U. J.
Kennedy, Mary Elizabeth
Kerr, Ada M.
Kincaid, Miss Annie
Kincaid, Miss Susan
King, Mrs. James B.
Killey, Lucy H.
Kohlsaat, Anna M.
Kohlsaat, Bertha T.
Kohlsaat, Mrs. E. W.
Krigger, Miss Lillie F.
Laird, John E.
Lambert, Vashli L. A.
Learned, Mrs. Carrie S.
Lee, Mary Urquhart
Lenington, Andrew

Lenington, Mrs. Ellen H.
Lewis, Mrs. Frank
Lewis, Miss Lucy Blanche
Lewis, Miss Mate
Libberton, William J.
Linder, Miss Minda
Logan, Elizabeth A.
Love, Mrs. Charles F.
Love, Mrs. Henry M.
Lowland, Henrietta H.
Lowie, Ella
Lowie, Mrs. A. H. von R.
Mack, Henrietta
Manlove, Lucy S.
Marchant, Adelaide G.
Mareau, Hattie Fay
Mather, Will S.
Maxwell, Esther A.
McCulloch, Jr., Thomas G.
McKinney, Mrs. Kate S.
McLafferty, Nellie P.
McMahon, Mattie Yates
McKernan, Sadie M.
Merrill, Herbert Llewellyn
Merrill, Mrs. Nina B.
Mitchell, Mrs. Nancy A.
Mitchell, Thomas J.
Morrison, Chas. Robert
Morrison, Margaret
Moseman, Ida Louise
Molting, Miss Effie M.
Murphy, Ella Clara
Murphy, Mrs. Caroline Lois
Myard, Zell G.
Neelands, Lewis W.
Niver, Mrs. Kate G.
Norbury, Frank Parsons
Oehler, Arthur
Orr, Jennie M.
Ottwell, Mrs. Mary Van Winkle
Palmer, Mrs. Emma A.
Parsons, Ada Virginia
Peck, Mrs. Lucretia B.
Peck, Julia C.
Pelley, Lula D.
Pender, Miss Anna M.
Pender, Miss Mary Elizabeth
Penfield, Mary F.
Percival, Curtis Edward
Percival, Mrs. Helen F.
Perry, Henrietta S.
Poe, Mrs. Frances
Poe, William M.
Poor, Mrs. Maria
Potter, Martha I.
Powers, Mary A.
Powers, Mrs. N. Eleanor
Powers, Sarah A.
Prentice, Adda
Rand, Emma B.
Randle, Mrs. Mary C. S.
Rankin, Mrs. Alma Hurd
Rea, Caroline H.
Rea, Catherine H.
Reed, Lillian B.
Reigard, Miss Blanche E.
Reigard, Sciota Minerva
Richards, Adaline S.
Richards, William Vern
Riggs, Fanny B.
Ripley, Carrie
Riser, Mrs. Emily
Riser, Mrs. Mary E.
Roberts, Lida E.
Rogers, Miss Georgiana
Rogers, Miss Ruxia H.
Rohrer, Alvin F.
Rose, John
Sance, Mary E.
Schuyler, H. N.
Scott, Miss Lou M.
Seal, Achsah M.
Sewell, Mrs. Sarah Lane
Seymour, Harriet L.
Sheller, Carrie L.
Sherwin, Mrs. R. K.
Shinn, Genie
Shinn, Rosa L.
Shur, Belle M.
Sibert, Miss Emma L.
Simpson, Addie E.
Smedley, Fred Warren
Smith, Frank E.
Smith, M. L. F.
Snider, Nellie H.
Snively, Mrs. Kate M.
Snyder, Cora Alice
Snyder, Edith C.
Sparks, Esther A. M.
Springgate, Mrs. R. C.
Stettler, Mrs. Nellie
Stitt, Flora G.
Stitt, Frank B.
Stoddard, Mrs. Sara B.
Stout, Lizzie
Strawder, Harriet A.
Thomas, Mary Adeline
Tindall, Mrs. Alice
Tindall, Ida M.
Todd, Frances Abbey
Trautner, Watson
Triplett, Mrs. Emily P.
Tull, Amanda
Veeder, Mrs. J. S.
Vilas, Albert H.
Warren, Mrs. Julia P.
Warrington, Mrs. Julia O.

Watson, Emma Harriet
Watson, Mrs. Keziah Hester
Watson, Mrs. L. L.
Wayman, Mrs. Cassie Bowen
White, Emma Gertrude
White, James D.
White, Miss Stella F.
Whiteside, Mrs. Ada S.
Whitman, Libbie C.
Williams, Miss Lizzie
Williams, Sarah C.
Winans, George A.
Wisegarver, Mrs. W. H.
Wisegarver, William H.
Witmer, Mary A.
Woodbridge, Mrs. Laura K.
Woodford, Mrs. N. W.
Woods, Frances
Workman, Alice
Yates, Frances L.
Youle, Miss Elizabeth

INDIANA.

Alexander, Mary Rogers
Beelman, Mrs. Amanda
Bibbins, Miss Anita R.
Blanchard, Miss Lula C.
Boggs, Mrs. William
Boston, Charles Elliott
Bragdon, Louise
Brown, Mrs. L. W.
Buckingham, Mrs. G. B.
Cain, Mrs. Mary D.
Campbell, Abbie J. F.
Campbell, Inez L.
Campbell, Miss Mellie A.
Cavin, Mrs. John L.
Cavins, Mrs. Matilda L.
Chambers, Mrs. Jennie C.
Chambers, John Drake
Cherry, Miss Mattie R.
Clark, Miss Hattie K.
Clark, Jessie Olive
Coffin, Lola Onata
Curry, Mrs. Jennie Foster
Curry, Phoebe Rous
Curry, William F.
Davis, Mrs. Chas. W.
Davis, Mrs. Sarah A.
Davis, Mrs. W. K.
De Lancey, Rebecca
Dickens, Mrs. M. E.
Dodds, Nellie W.
Downing, Miss Sara E.
Dulin, Miss Jessie Benton
Dunlap, Lizzie S.
Eagles, Hattie E.
Eakin, Mrs. Margaret A.
Elliott, Piety F.
Faulstich, E. Olive
Folger, Mrs. Clara A.
Ford, Mrs. Henry
Foulke, Mary E.
Goodwin, Mrs. Chas. F.
Goodwin, Charles Francis
Grave, Jennie Sweet
Green, Mary E.
Griffin, Dennis
Hammer, Carrie
Harding, Mrs. D. L.
Harper, Mrs. Sallie F.
Harrison, Mrs. Minta H.
Hartman, Mrs. Lem R.
Hartman, Lem R.
Haworth, Catharine
Hollopeter, B. S.
Holmes, Mrs. Mary A.
Jenkins, G. P.
Johnson, Lola
Kent, Mrs. Josephine
Kinney, Collie Ernest
Kiser, Mrs. Ella
Knott, Isaac Grewells
Knox, Miss Alice E.
Knox, Miss Kate N.
Lamport, Hortensius M.
Landis, Annie Elizabeth
Levering, Anna L.
Lynn, L. Effie
Mackey, Mrs. Ida
Macy, Julia A.
Masters, Miss Luella M.
McCaughy, Etta R.
McCaughy, G. Bruce
McClure, Mrs. L. A.
McCready, H. Selina
McCulloch, Sarah I.
McDaniel, Mrs. Sadie
McDermont, Anna
McIntosh, Mrs. Marcie
McKee, Mrs. Anna C.
McKee, John F.
Merrill, Seymour J.
Miller, Fred William
Mills, William Anderson
Monical, Carrie D.
Moore, E. W. L.
Moore, Edith
Newby, Miss Debbie
Newby, Mattie
Nye, Theresa A.
Ono, Joseph Harry
Palmer, Alice R.
Pearson, Mrs. Pauline N.
Phillips, Kate
Porter, M. D., Abraham W.
Porter, Mary L.

Raub, Mrs. A. D.
Riely, Hettie Day
Rogers, Lizzie S.
Rose, Sarah W.
Scott, Mrs. Amanda M.
Scott, Lena C.
Shank, Perry J.
Shera, Miss Mary Alice
Shilling, Mrs. Alice C.
Shirk, John C.
Shryer, Mrs. Arabell
Shryer, Mrs. M. M.
Smith, Miss Harriet E.
Smith, Nettie M.
Smith, Miss Peru E.
Swift, Agnes J.
Switzer, Mrs. Anna Hiett
Vail, Miss Eva
Walter, Mrs. Esta E.
White, Mrs. Martha A.
Willson, Amanda
Woodbury, Mrs. S. H.
Woodworth, Sarah B.
Young, Caroline
Zinn, Ella

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Cobb, Miss Bell
IOWA.
Adkinson, Mrs. Mary E.
Apple, Martha J.
Ayer, Miss Ida B.
Bacon, Hattie E.
Baker, Sarah B.
Ball, Alice
Bannister, Edmund B.
Bannister, Jennie G.
Billings, Mrs. Carrie B.
Bowen, Mrs. Jem H.
Brown, Mrs. Harriet M.
Brown, Miss Kate L.
Brown, Nellie M.
Burdick, Mrs. H. A.
Burrington, Caroline A.
Bush, Mrs. Helen P.
Butler, Mrs. Charlotte K.
Campbell, Anna M.
Carr, Alice
Carson, Sade M.
Child, Mrs. Rachel L.
Clark, Jennie S.
Conant, Mrs. W. S.
Conner, Mrs. Jessie F.
Cooper, Kate D.
Cotton, Ernestine Alberta
Crawford, Alexander
Crawford, Mrs. M. A.
Davidson, Mrs. Sade M.
Davis, Emeraie A.
Dobbs, Emma Urella
Dolmage, May
Dorn, Lillie B.
Earle, Ellen Augusta
Emsley, Mary A.
Enfield, Mrs. Chas.
Ercanbrack, Mrs. Harriet A.
Ercanbrack, Thomas R.
Farrow, Alexander S.
Farrow, Mrs. Isa D. A.
Finney, Minnie L.
Fogg, Mrs. Delia I.
Fleming, Mrs. Florence E.
Gammon, Mrs. Annie E.
Gardner, M. Josephine
Gould, Mrs. B. B.
Gurley, Royal Harrison
Haines, Eliza J.
Hanford, Mrs. E. H.
Hanford, Fannie J.
Hanson, Louise M.
Hardy, Mrs. Carrie J.
Hart, Miss Ella
Hepburn, Mary Margaret
Hepburn, Melie A.
Hillhouse, Mrs. Clara E.
Hillyer, Mrs. James M.
Hoff, Miss Martha E.
Holland, Luella G.
Holliday, Clemmie T.
Holmes, Eva Rebecca
Hopkins, Abbie Frater
Horner, Agnes A.
Horner, Robert M.
Hoyt, Mrs. Etta P.
Hubbell, Mrs. Jennie E.
Hunt, Clara A.
Hunter, Rebecca D.
Hurley, Alice M.
Hurley, Anna M.
James, Miss Effie M.
James, Mrs. U. T.
Janteson, Mrs. Sylvia
Johnson, Mary E.
Johnston, Mary H.
Jordan, Nellie A.
Kennedy, Mrs. Lily T.
Kent, Miss Ella
Kerr, L. Ortese
Kirk, Mrs. A. M.
Knepper, Mrs. Nettie
Knight, Mary Bell
Knott, Mrs. Carrie L.
Lane, Edith Norcross
Law, Effie
LeRoy, Jennie P.
Mallory, Mrs. Mary E.

Mather, Ellen Knudson
McBride, Mrs. Laura J.
McClure, Emily C.
McClure, May
McClod, Helen I.
McGrigor, M.
Merriam, Mrs. M. C.
Mitchell, Mrs. John R.
Morey, Mrs. Nettie I.
Murphy, Mrs. George
Oliver, Lizzie Maud
Owen, Margaret R.
Parker, Kate Reynolds
Parker, Miriam M.
Paul, Mrs. Angie
Pease, Mrs. Caroline M.
Peck, M. D., Frank P.
Perkins, Clara E.
Phelan, Miss Tress
Porterfield, Mrs. Mattie F.
Pratt, Maggie Y.
Preston, Eugenia F.
Preston, Nellie Amelia
Preston, Mrs. W. T.
Raff, Lida Bea
Reeve, Mrs. E.
Richardson, Mattie
Ryerson, Georgiana
Ryerson, Mary H.
Sampey, Miss Armenia
Schreiner, Rev. Edwin L.
Scott, Annie Eliza
Scranton, Mrs. Helen Jean
Seeds, Mrs. Willa H.
Seidel, Mrs. Emmagean A.
Seitz, Phebe S.
Shaw, William Henry
Silsby, Mrs. Wm. H.
Starrett, Edith Belle
Steinke, Mrs. Frank A.
Stevens, Rena C.
Strange, Anna C.
Strong, Mrs. Madge
Stuart, Mrs. Mary M.
Stuart, Minnie D.
Sunderland, Anna J.
Swisher, Miss Lucy
Tallman, Elizabeth A.
Tippie, Jerome C.
Todd, Minnie S.
Tourellot, Miss Jennie E.
Walker, Mrs. Emma M.
Wallace, Mrs. A. H.
Wallace, Mrs. Mary J.
Warren, Mrs. Mary A.
Wattles, Jennie Leet
Webster, Miss Sibbie
Weiny, Clara Alma
Welf, Helen Virginia
Wetherill, Sarah I.
Wight, Ellen S.
Wilson, Miss Lilly May

KANSAS.

Barnes, Francis
Bates, Miss Mel
Bereman, Harold Armstrong
Bird, Mary Dodge
Bonteson, Mary E.
Boughton, Anna M.
Brown, Frank J.
Brown, Mrs. Frank J.
Browning, Gusta R.
Buttre, Miss Rachel A.
Campbell, Mary C.
Carman, Miss Emma Mattie
Carman, Miss Mary E.
Carson, Mrs. Mary M.
Coe, Mallie S.
Colburn, L. J.
Collins, Mrs. N. R.
Clarkson, Mrs. Eliza B.
Clark, Jennie Graham
Clarkson, Jennie M.
Coughenour, Mrs. B. F.
Coughenour, B. F.
Dales, Mrs. Agnes M.
Davis, Nicholas H.
Dawdy, Mrs. Hattie M.
Day, Mrs. Mary E.
DeMoss, Mrs. Anna M.
DeMoss, Jas. A.
Devalley, John A.
Douglas, Mrs. S. J.
Dunn, Emma Josephine
Dutton, Mrs. Benjamin
Embree, Ency S.
Farrar, Celia H. F.
Fleisher, Emanuel H.
Flemming, Mrs. Mary P.
Fletcher, Mrs. R. B.
Gaddis, Mrs. Mary
Gale, E. P.
Gillette, Harry E.
Gillmore, Terisa Marshall
Glines, Annie W.
Gloss, Sarah E.
Gott, Jennie L.
Haley, Mrs. Marion
Halsted, Eva A.
Hamilton, Susie Guernsey
Hardy, Elena Norcross
Hereford, Daniel B.
Hereford, Maggie L.
Herod, Clay D.
Hickok, Mrs. E. P.
Hickok, Eliza H.

Hoffman, Miss Emelie A.
Hole, Lucy
Holt, Mrs. Augusta S.
Houghton, Annie E.
Hurley, Jennie Weston
Hurley, T. Emerson
Iselin, J. F.
Jacobs, Mrs. Cora
Johnson, Mrs. Zach T.
Kanaga, Miss Mary F.
Knapp, Joseph M.
Knapp, Mrs. J. M.
Leavitt, Emma Jenks
Light, Chas. M.
Light, Judd B.
Light, Mrs. Kate E.
Louthan, Mrs. Mary A.
Louthan, Overton Earl
Lucas, Agnes J.
Lyman, Nannie
Maggard, Emma McLean
Martin, Rima V. O.
Martin, Mary Estelle
Martin, Sebern S.
Maynard, Mrs. Dona L.
McAllister, Matloia J.
McCurdy, Mrs. Evaline
Miller, Mrs. Margaret E.
Miller, Mrs. Mattie A.
Miller, Mrs. T. C.
Moore, Edward M.
Munger, Maria Antoinette
Muse, Miss Margaret G.
Neal, Mrs. Emma F.
Nelson, Alice M.
Parker, Aaron Holmes
Parmenter, Salena
Parsons, Callie J.
Peebles, Mary Annis
Pennell, Mrs. Mary O.
Pierce, Mrs. Ida Mabel
Pratt, Mrs. Lyde
Rash, Mrs. J. C.
Raymond, M. A.
Rigel, Mrs. Mary
Robb, Jennie Alice
Seariog, Mrs. Julia E.
Shelden, Rosepha B.
Shriver, Mrs. A. C.
Smith, Mrs. Alice M.
Smith, Allie E.
Smyth, Kate W.
Slie, Mrs. Martha H.
Spaulding, Helen
Stone, Florence G.
Stretch, Miss Jessie
Sutherland, Mrs. Fannie
Telford, Lotie
Tupper, Imogen Haywood
Varnum, Lucy
Weidner, Helen M.
Wetherbee, Addison Herbert
Wilber, Olin Mortimer
Wilcox, Mrs. Carrie W.
Williams, Chas. W.
Wishard, Frank M.
Wishard, Grace
Woodworth, Mrs. Elizabeth
Worden, Mrs. Flora E.

KENTUCKY.

Allen, Mary E.
Anderson, Miss Kate S.
Bashford, Mrs. Allen
Bennett, Belle H.
Bennett, Sue A.
Breen, Mrs. Callie
Breen, Miss Jennie
Bristow, Miss Nannie D.
Darsie, Rev. George
Foglie, Lizzie
Given, Margaretta Ross
Johnson, Frank C.
Johnson, Miss Lena Leoti
Mabry, Mildred
Perry, Kate T.
Rachal, William Matson
Scott, Miss Sallie C.
Shumway, Miss Nellie
Spilman, Nonie L.
Smith, Florence C.
Smith, Lizzie C.
Suddith, Mrs. Lizzie
Thumme, Miss Mary H.
Turner, Mrs. Georgia
Tyler, Mrs. Margaret O.
Veach, Mrs. Lewis
Wardroper, Anne A.
White, Mrs. Rosalie Wells
Wilkie, Mary Aletha

LOUISIANA.

Strickland, Mary A.
Strickland, Theron C.

MAINE.

Adams, Sarah B.
Allen, Maria Caroline
Allen, Mary Johnson
Ames, Miss Cora F.
Ayres, Harriet Isabel
Bailey, Ellen M.
Bailey, Flora M.
Bailey, Mabel G.
Bangs, Miss Ella M.
Banks, Mrs. Caroline M.
Banks, Nellie M.

Bean, Leroy Samuel
Beede, Abbie S.
Bennett, Mrs. Belle M.
Bigney, Alice M.
Blake, M. D., Isaac A. D.
Boothby, Mrs. Erastus
Bradley, Miss Mary F.
Briggs, Mrs. Cora Skillings
Burbank, Alice Thompson
Burgess, Flora A.
Carier, Mrs. Harriet N.
Chamberlain, William
Cheney, Edward E.
Clark, Mrs. Annie O.
Clark, Helen Carleton
Clark, Mrs. Lucy W.
Cleaves, Martha W.
Cobb, Fannie Ellen
Cole, Albert E.
Corliss, Grace Stetson
Crawford, Miss M. Annie
Dame, Louise Mitchell
Davis, Mrs. Ann G.
Debeck, Antoinette
Denson, Miss Kate L. D.
Dexter, Lewis
Dodge, Mary Gertrude
Downing, Miss Winnie M.
Downing, Miss A. Augusta
Duran, Emma F.
Dwinal, Miss Ella J.
Eastman, Myra May
Eaton, Ellen Chase
Ehrlacher, Mrs. Mary S.
Evans, Francella A.
Everett, Miss Annie H.
Fitch, Mrs. Agnes W.
Foss, Mrs. Abby
French, Miss Rozetta A.
French, Walter T.
Frye, Sarah Harris
Furbush, Alice Caroline
Giles, Mrs. Mary E. Snow
Gilpatrick, Howard
Gilpatrick, Mary L.
Gilpatrick, Mrs. Olivia M.
Gooding, Clara Blanchard
Gould, Ellen
Gould, Jesse
Hall, Mrs. Abbie Rhodes
Hamlin, Miss Lucy
Harrison, Eliza J.
Harrop, Nellie Celia
Haskell, Mrs. Sarah A.
Hathorne, Miss Abbie
Higgins, Lelia
Hill, Florence
Hill, Mary F.
Hill, Miss Nellie O.
Holmes, Mrs. Calista A.
Holt, Charles L.
Holt, Mrs. Charlotte L.
Hutchins, Hattie A.
Jenkins, Richard William
Jordan, Mabel R.
Kemp, Eda Marion
Kemp, Jr., Willis Brodstreet
Kennall, Sarah Elizabeth
Kimball, Mrs. Fally A.
Kimball, Geo.
Kyle, Miss Alice May
Ladd, Ammi Storer
Leavitt, Charlotte Maria
Leand, Carrie E.
Lewis, Miss Jennie S.
Libby, Miss Belle
Lincoln, Mrs. Amelia
Lord, Miss Elizabeth C.
Lord, Miss Flora Vesta
Marston, Mrs. Louisa M.
Martin, Mrs. Mary A.
McKeene, Mrs. Annie L.
McLelland, Miss Annie A.
Melcher, Lizzie M.
Merrill, Mrs. Leah H.
Morgan, Miss Lucy Ellen
Morgan, Miss Sarah Elizabeth
Morrill, Mary S.
Moulton, Miss Dora H.
Moulton, Miss Ellen Gertrude
Newell, Mrs. Ida F.
Noyes, Gertrude May
Palmer, Mrs. D. C.
Park, Clara Ella
Parsons, Lillian Elizabeth
Parsons, Willis E.
Patten, Miss Luella
Pendexter, Rebecca W.
Perkins, Mrs. Emma F.
Perkins, Mary Abigail
Perry, Mary Adella
Poole, Mrs. Hulda B. White
Pulley, Mrs. Hie Carroll
Ramsdell, Emma I.
Ross, Mary R. M.
Russell, Martha Ella
Sale, Lizzie J.
Sale, Thomas D.
Shapleigh, Clara Lillian
Smith, Mrs. Eliza Etta
Smith, Mrs. Mary
Strout, Mrs. Ellen F.
Sturtevant, Eliza A.
Sylvester, Mrs. Hattie A.
Tilley, Mrs. Lydia S.
Titcomb, Katie M.
Tompson, Alberta M.

Tompson, Helen Frances
Towle, Ella R.
Travis, Mrs. Abbie H.
Vining, C. Emma
Waterhouse, Carrie Eva
Waterhouse, Nathaniel
Waterhouse, Mrs. Sarah H.
Watts, Miss Lucy J.
Wells, Annie E.
Weymouth, Carrie S.
Whitmore, Mrs. Harriet E.
Will, Tuvay Frances
Winslow, Lizzie Amanda
Winslow, Mary G.
Winslow, Nellie Lucetta
Wright, Helen M.
Wood, Rufina B.

MARYLAND.

Belt, George
Buhlman, Cora Virginia
Chilton, Mrs. Cecilia
Devilbiss, Ida Elizabeth
Hearn, Eben
Hill, Annie Wescott
Hill, Miss Deane S.
Hill, Mary Elizabeth
Hobbs, William A.
Kearney, Kate
Keller, Miss Addie R.
Markey, Mary Virginia
Medford, Mary
Medford, T. H.
Metcalfe, Luvne Rebekah
Moore, E. E.
Nicolson, W. A. E. B.
Pennington, Miss Florence
Ridrick, Ada M.
Sutton, Ella
Sutton, Lucy
Taylor, Charles Jacob
White, Edmund C.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Abbott, Lucy M.
Alexander, Blain
Alexander, Sarah Elizabeth
Alger, Cora Hayward
Alger, Lucia
Alger, Mrs. N. C.
Alger, Miss Sarah Jane
Allen, Miss Louisa A.
Anderson, Caroline Lavinia
Andrews, Mrs. Deming L.
Andrews, Vestina J.
Arms, Lillian D.
Arms, Mary E.
Arnold, Mrs. John P.
Atkinson, Catharine Frances
Atwood, Mrs. L. P.
Atwood, Lewis Pease
Atwood, Lillie Belle
Atwood, Mary
Bacon, Linnie Ellenor
Bacon, Luna Ella
Bailey, Charlotte T.
Bailey, Henrietta Esther
Baker, Alice
Baldwin, Fanny Longfellow
Ball, Mrs. Mary D.
Barber, Harry R.
Barber, Henry Davis
Barber, Heppie Dexter
Barber, Mrs. Lucy Ann
Barber, Mrs. Sadie M.
Barry, Charles C.
Batchelder, Anna Olivia
Batchelder, Henri
Batchelder, Hattie May
Bean, Mrs. Harriet A.
Bears, Flora T.
Beede, Frank Taylor
Benner, Susie E.
Berry, Annie H.
Bigelow, Miss Addie A.
Bird, E. Jennie
Bixby, Carrie
Blair, Alfred A.
Blake, Lizzie Grant
Blood, Mrs. Jennie M.
Blood, Mrs. S. Frances
Boright, Mrs. Gertrude
Bourne, Mrs. Evelyn E.
Bowen, Amanda L.
Bowker, Susan E.
Boynton, R.
Brackett, Mrs. John A.
Bradford, Edith M.
Brakey, Abbie Ellen
Brewster, Mrs. Harriet M.
Brickett, Rev. Harry Leroy
Brighton, Mrs. Julia L.
Brookings, Selden S.
Brown, Alice Davis
Brown, Dora Janette
Brown, Emma Frances
Brown, Marion Estey
Brown Sarah Davis
Brown, Miss Susan N.
Bruce, Mary A.
Burbuck, William G.
Burham, M. Alice
Burr, Arthur Herbert
Burrill, Katharine Latimer
Butterfield, Miss Laura L.
Carpenter, Juliette W. B.
Carr, Melinda A.

Carter, Miss Ann Frances
Carter, Mrs. Emma
Carter, Mrs. Adella Belle
Carv, Sarah T.
Castle, Frank Arthur
Chamberlain, Abbie L.
Chandler, Louise A.
Chapin, Marie Bacon
Chapin, Martha Warner
Chase, Mrs. Emeline A.
Chase, Evelyn Louise
Chase, L. A.
Chester, Dwight
Chickering, Lizzie A.
Clap, Mrs. Harvey
Clark, Miss Ella Frances
Clark, Ellen Orreetta
Cobb, Eunice Flora
Coburn, Elizabeth C.
Coburn, Sarah Louise
Cole, Miss Eva M.
Cole, William Albert
Collins, Alice V.
Conn, Mrs. Harriet E.
Cornish, Clifton Hovey
Cousins, Justina C. W.
Crail, Lewis W.
Craig, Lizzie E. Stevens
Crandall, Helen E.
Cressaw, Alice M.
Crosley, M. as Abbie W.
Croswell, Isabella Elliot
Cunningham, Miss Lila O.
Culver, Sarah Almira
Daniel, Mary Priscilla
Darius, Mrs. Eliza O.
Darling, Mrs. Henry W.
Davis, George H.
Davis, Lillie Elizabeth
Davidson, Charles W.
Day, Mary Elizabeth
Dean, Mrs. Annie Janette
Dean, M. Addie
Deane, Mary E.
Diman, Miss Lizzie M.
Dinsmore, Miss Sarah L.
Doane, Alfred A.
Draper, Emma DeWitt
Drury, Ella L.
Dunbar, Lucina
Dunning, Albert E.
Durgin, Miss Mary E.
Dyer, Ada Belle
Dyer, Mrs. Emma B.
Dyer, George Sampson
Dyer, Helen H.
Eames, Miss Elizabeth S.
Earle, Julia B.
Eastman, Jr., Rev. Lucius R.
Eastman, Rebecca P.
Eaton, Mary Harriet
Eddy, George Morton
Eddy, Sarah Bradford
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Edson, Charles Eugene
Edwards, Emma Ashley
Edwards, Esther N.
Edwards, Mary Elizabeth
Eversett, Susan S.
Eichler, Mrs. Robert F.
Ekman, Nannie F.
Ellis, Mary L.
Emerton, Lucy Elizabeth
Estee, Helen F.
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Evans, Rev. Miner H. A.
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Fales, Mrs. Sarah A.
Farnum, Lucy A.
Fay, Mrs. Eliza Ann
Fay, Nancy B.
Field, Lila Ashley
Flint, Mary E.
Floyd, Belle A.
Fobes, Edith Emma
Ford, Miss Abby E.
Foster, Harriet J.
Fothergill, Mrs. Lucy
Fox, Effie Holland
Foye, Mrs. Augusta A.
Frederick, Fernetta Frances
French, Abbie Frances
French, Anna L.
French, Dora A.
French, Nellie B.
Fuller, Edward Clarke
Fuller, Ida Ellen
Furbush, Susie E.
Gay, Frederick W.
Gibson, Ruth
Gifford, Annie Marie
Gifford, George G.
Gooch, James Alfred
Goodwin, Mrs. Alice D.
Gove, Miss Lizzie A.
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Grant, Mary N.
Greene, Eliza Ray
Greenleaf, Stillman Allen
Greenough, William Francis
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Gunnison, Anna Maria
Hager, Mrs. Lucy Caroline
Hall, Hattie M.
Hall, Nellie H.
Hamilton, Mrs. H. B.
Hamilton, Henry B.

Hamm, Lizzie Parkhurst
Hardy, Annie M.
Hardy, Nellie Elizabeth
Harris, Adeline Eaton
Harris, Mrs. Armenia A.
Harrison, Mary W.
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Hart, William H.
Haseltine, Martha
Hastings, Chas. W.
Hatch, Ellen S.
Hawes, Martha J.
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Hayward, William W.
Hellyar, Samuel Henry
Hemming, Mary Tower
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Hicks, Charles Atherton
Hicks, Harriet B.
Higgins, Sarah Chamberlain
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Hills, Mary Adelaide
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Hogan, Mrs. Clara A.
Hofden, Bertha L.
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Hollis, J. Gertrude
Holmes, Abbie C. D.
Holmes, Caroline A. F.
Holt, Mrs. Ella Ames
Holt, Ella M.
Hood, Halile M.
Hopkins, Martha
Horn, George Sumner
Hovey, Ruth
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Howe, Miss Caroline O.
Howe, Josephine C.
Hoyt, Hattie O.
Hoyt, Miss Laura G.
Hoyt, Nannie M.
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Jones, Josie A.
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King, Susie
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Lawrence, Grace
Lawton, Mary M.
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Leighton, Mrs. Laura A.
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Lewis, Maria Morse
Light, Josie E.
Lilley, Maria E.
Lilley, Thomas
Littlefield, Carrie Josephine
Littlefield, Mrs. Hannah A.
Loker, Jonathan W.
Lord, Emily C.
Lord, Mrs. Nellie R.
Low, Sarah J. Sprague
Lummus, Carrie L.
Lynde, M. Carrie
Mace, Charlotte Elizabeth
Mace, Ella Weston
MacGregor, Miss Lizzie
Mackie, Mrs. H. Ella
Magoun, Eleanor Amelia
Manley, Bertha
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Mason, Mrs. Harriet J.
Matthews, Lizzie E.
Maxfield, Miss Lucy S.
Mayo, Dora M.
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Meador, Mrs. Victorine A.
Merriam, Annie Frances

Merriam, Elizabeth
Merriam, Mrs. Jennie B.
Merrill, Miss Annie
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Miller, Vesta Delphene
Mills, Caroline Gay
Mills, Idalette Bronson
Montague, Mrs. Jennie Todd
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Morse, Mabel M.
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Osgood, May Agnes.
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Parkhurst, Marcia Williams
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Patterson, Georgianna
Patterson, Mrs. Maria R.
Paul, Ida E.
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Peirce, Lizzie C.
Pendleton, M. Gertrude
Perkins, Emma Somerby
Perry, Abbie Elizabeth
Perry, Miss Ada Maria
Perry, Oria J.
Perry, Wallace F.
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Pierce, Cornelia J. F.
Pierce, Mary E.
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Pike, Charissa Huntington
Pike, Emma Stuart
Pingree, Carrie
Potter, Carrie May
Potter, Mrs. Ida A.
Potter, Lizzie C.
Potter, Maj. Leonard L.
Potter, Mary H.
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Porter, Miss Emma A.
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Porter, Julia Lucinda
Porter, Mrs. Samuel F.
Porter, Samuel Wadsworth
Porter, Susan Adelaide
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Putnam, Martha Porter
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Rand, Anna Locke
Rand, Frances
Randall, Everett C.
Randall, Fannie B.
Randall, M. D., Francis D.
Rawson, Stella N.
Ray, Harriet F.
Raymond, Mrs. Elizabeth H.
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Reed, Ella
Reed, Mrs. W. S.
Remick, Mary F.
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Reynolds, Emma D.
Rhodes, Mrs. Elizabeth M.
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Richardson, Julia F.
Ring, Abbie Lucretia
Roberts, Mary A.
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Rood, J. A.
Rotch, Caleb L.
Russell, Jean
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Scott, Jessie Fremont
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Snerman, Cyrus Tyler
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Smith, R. Joanna
Smith, Thankful B.
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Somerby, George K.
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Stiles, Miss Jennie C.
Stimpson, Cora B.
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Stinson, Robert J.
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Stoddard, Altha V.
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Stow, William Edward
Streeter, Willard Ezra
Sturdy, Mrs. Flora D.
Sturdy, Lydia P.
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Sweetser, Josephine S.
Tabbot, Julia May
Taylor, Isabel Bryant
Taylor, Emma O.
Taylor, Evelyn Bennett
Taylor, Nellie L.
Taylor, Miss Susan H.
Terry, Charles Church
Thompson, Benjamin T.
Thurston, Cora Bell
Tibbitts, Henry F.
Tilton, Annie W.
Tisdale, Mary Amanda
Todd, Arthur Somerville
Todd, Miss Lizzie F.
Townsend, Julia A.
Tucker, Eva L.
Tucker, Hattie
Tucker, Mary L.
Tucker, Miss May Prescott
Tucker, Mrs. Samuel S.
Twombly, Louisa O.
Underwood, Marshall
Usner, Abbie T.
Vase, Harriet B.
Wales, Mrs. A. T.
Walker, Mrs. Samuel
Walker, Wm. F.
Wallace, A. Dillon
Ward, Lydia Cummings W.
Waring, Miss Annie J.
Warren, Sarah Maria
Washburn, Mrs. Diana P.
Watkins, E. Alice
Weiger, Miss Ella C.
Wedger, Miss M. Ida
Welden, Nellie L.
West, Miss Dora H.
West, Mrs. Mary S.
Westcott, Hattie A.
Westcott, Mrs. N. A.
Wheeler, Ada Whitman
Wheeler, Jane A. D.
Wheeler, Mary L.
Whidden, Anne E.
Whipple, Cornelia E.
Whitcher, Florence Elizabeth
White, Emma M.
Whiting, Grace Norwood
Whiting, Lucy M.
Whitney, Ada Belle
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Whittemore, Mrs. Mary E. S.
Wilbur, Sophia Angeline
Williams, Ella Elizabeth
Williams, Lillian Kingsbury
Wilmarth, Harriett A.
Witherell, Nellie M.
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Wood, Irene Smith
Wood, Sanford L.
Wright, Mrs. James E.
Yancey, Robert N.
Yeoman, Mrs. Alice M.
Yeoman, J. Herbert

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Anten, Elizabeth H.
Antisdale, Minnie C.
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Austin, Mina Merriman
Bekus, Mrs. Salome A.
Bakley, Mrs. H. L.
Bakley, Mrs. Mary Conwell
Barnard, Mrs. Charles
Barnes, Mary S.
Barrett, W. H.
Bates, Eusebia Florence
Bates, Gertrude Amelia
Beedle, George S.
Beckett, Mrs. Mary A.
Beckett, Mrs. T. O.
Birch, Charles Edward
Birch, Clarence W. W.
Bishop, Louisa Grant
Bladell, Amelia
Blodgett, Gilbert H.
Blodgett, Mary Ella
Brab, Miss Mary J.
Brainerd, Miss Cora E.
Brindle, Ella H.
Broas, Mrs. Chas.

Bromley, Maria S.
Browning, Carrie B.
Brunson, Elizabeth Finch
Burdick, Miss Belle
Busenbark, Miss Ella H.
Butz, Anna Beaumont
Carpener, Etta
Casler, Mrs. Elma G.
Cheesman, Minnie M.
Childs, Sattie E.
Cobb, E. S.
Cobb, Myra Laurinda
Colwell, Miss Abbie C.
Cook, Ida May
Darling, Augusta M.
Darling, Cyrenus G.
DeCamp, Mrs. Polly E.
Dunton, Mrs. Josie Norris
Egabroad, William H.
Ellis, Miss Mae
English, Carl Schurz
English, Mary Anna
Fairbank, Mrs. H. C.
Fairfield, Eliza B.
Farr, Jessie E.
Faxoo, Carrie Lu
Field, Mrs. Eliza A.
Fleming, Sarah Ruah Soule
Fliege Marie
French, Mrs. Jessie B.
Galusha, Miss Lilla A.
Gillam, Mrs. Rose
Green, Miss Addie
Greene, Emma Waterloo
Grierson, Edward S.
Haight, Mrs. Elizabeth E.
Harris, Millie
Harris, Olive C.
Haskell, Henry L.
Haylev, Emily E.
Hill, Mina G.
Holcomb, Mrs. Adda
Holcomb, George Patterson
Hubbard, Mrs. Belle
Hubbard, Elizabeth F. Ingram
Ilgenritz, Mary E.
Jackson, Ella Watson
Kemp, Miss Emma Rosina
Kimball, Mrs. Lottie E.
Leggett, Mrs. Cora A.
Lewis, Cora E.
Livingston, Emma K.
Lucas, D.D., James B.
Martu, Minnie A.
Mayo, Mary A.
McHarg, Jennie
McLain, Mrs. Elizabeth
Mills, Melinda L.
Morse, Mrs. Lizzie J.
Morton, Andrew N.
Norton, Andrew N.
Nethaway, Ella M.
Nichols, L. Aoda
Palmer, James Sherman
Parks, Mrs. O. E.
Peck, Hannah M.
Pierkins, Samuel
Puffer, Mrs. Margaret
Reasoner, Miss Maggie
Rilstone, Francis
Roberts, William G.
Rovs, Julia B.
Sabin, Mrs. Caroline E.
Salmon Gelett B.
Scrimming, Mrs. Jennie D.
Sears, Florence E.
Sellingier, Cora B.
Shannon, Amanda C.
Shannon, Jessie Edith
Shier, Ettie R.
Shier, W. H.
Smith, Mrs. Bell
Smith, Miss Eva
Smith, Mrs. J. H.
Squier, Mrs. Annie E.
Staley, Mary L.
Stewart, Mrs. Libbie M.
Stone, Mrs. Mary O. Merritt
Swarthout, Mrs. Stella
Thompson, Mrs. Estelle C.
Thompson, Miss Mary J.
Tusman, Mrs. Mary Jane
Tomkinson, Sarah M.
Townsend, Geo. V.
Turner, Mrs. Charity I.
Tyler, Mrs. Elizabeth L.
Underwood, Mrs. Zetta A.
Urean, Albert Simon
Van Anda, Arthur J.
Van Dyke, Mrs. Linda T.
Van Loo, Marie Louise
Waldron, Mrs. Dora M.
Wallace, Mrs. Ellen L.
Ward, Miss Julia E.
Webster, Walter
Webster, Mrs. Walter
Welch, Julia E.
Wellman, S. Marion
West, Miss Minnie E.
Wetzel, Miss Anna
Wheelock, Miss Lydia A.
Woodruff, Carrie E.
Woods, Mrs. Heman M.
Young, M. Eva Nichols

MINNESOTA.

Albert, Mrs. Ella B.
Allison, Clara Howes

Allison, Rebecca M.
Barlow, Minnie M.
Barr, Mrs. George T.
Barrett, Nettie M.
Barrows, Mrs. Josephine G.
Bigelow, Edna A.
Chamberlin, Mrs. Clara A.
Chamberlin, Henry Lewis
Chapin, Mrs. A. B.
Chermak, Carrie Armstrong
Claghorn, Mrs. J. L.
Clement, Mrs. Mary E.
Cloves, Miss Hattie E.
Coulter, Lucinda O.
Cowgill, Mrs. F. B.
Crane, Mrs. C. C.
Cross, Mrs. Irene
Daniels, Mrs. G. T.
Davis, Florence A.
de Laittre, Susan Means
Donaldson, John B.
Dyer, Mrs. Nane Vance
Eckenbeck, Mrs. Suzette G.
Furber, Mary Susanna
Emerson, Carey
Everett, Mrs. Amelia A.
Farrar, Catharine C.
Farwell, Mrs. Frank B.
Fitch, Mrs. J. C.
Follett, Mrs. Denis
Fowble, Ella M.
Furber, Mrs. Mary Susanna
Gardner, Helen M.
Gary, Mrs. Nancy E.
Gibbs, Mrs. Louise
Gilbert, Mrs. Josephine B.
Gilham, Emma S.
Godfrey, Harriet Razada
Green, Francis M.
Griffith, Mrs. Mary Elma
Hall, Mrs. L. M.
Hancock, Ida Stebbins
Haney, Augusta Cosad
Harvie, Blanche M.
Heard, Lucinda C.
Holbrook, William R.
Hoyt, Mrs. J. F.
Irvin, Miss Janet
Jackson, Mrs. James F.
Jamieson, Rev. Samuel A.
Kelsey, Samuel C.
Kirkland, Clara P.
Kitts, Mrs. Joan M.
Ladd, Anna M. H.
Langrell, Mrs. Eleanor M.
Langrell, William L.
Leavitt, Miss Clara K.
Lord, Hettie C.
Mann, Horace H.
Mason, Sarah E.
McGillivray, Mary A.
McLaughlin, Augusta N.
McLeod, Mrs. Mary Evans
Mills, Frank B.
Morse, Miss Maud E.
Moyer, Lloyd G.
Nichols, Catherine Wheeler
Page, Mrs. A. M.
Parmelee, Mrs. Aletha
Perry, S. Jenett
Potter, Mrs. Anna L.
Quirk, Lillian De F. P.
Raney, Mrs. Euphemia A.
Rice, Mrs. Emma E.
Rickard, Charles T.
Rickard, Susie I. E.
Ridge, Miss Eva M.
Robotham, Adela T.
Rouse, Mrs. Jerusha Sedgwick
Shaw, Mary H.
Slack, Mrs. Fannie M.
Slater, Rosella E.
Stearns, Mrs. Arvilla L.
Stringer, Anna Belle
Swan, James William
Tasker, Mrs. Lucelia A.
Telford, Lizzie
Thummel, Edith Hepburn
Waite, Miss Evelyn Cogswell
Warner, Laura Alvord
Warner, Wallace
Watson, Miss Mary E.
Way, Estelle K.
Wellington, Mrs. S. A.
Wells, Mrs. Mattie C.
Wilcox, Mrs. Mary R.
Wilson, Imogene C.
Wilson, Zillah Estella Drew
Woodworth, Ellen A.
Worthen, Nellie R.

MISSISSIPPI.

Franklin, Lilla Young
Stevens, Mrs. R. A.
Weston, Addie Eliza
Young, Anna Alyda
Young, Sarah Vallie

MISSOURI.

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Ayres, Eugene
Ayres, Maggie R.
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Beaman, Elizabeth G.
Bernard, Elizabeth Ella
Boyd, Mrs. Hattie Watson

Brasfield, Mary E.
Burks, Mollie P.
Carr, Fannie B.
Clifford, Mrs. Sue
Cole, Miss Hattie M.
Cravcroft, Mrs. Alma
De Bolt, Lauresteine U.
Deshler, Oscar
Eib, Ada
Farrand, Mrs. Mamie J.
Findley, Mollie
Franklin, Mrs. Julia E.
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Golladay, Maria Lawrence
Gowdy, Miss Annie W.
Hall, George
Hall, Rachel Abbott
Harnett, Ella B.
Hayward, Mrs. Eliza B.
Hedges, Mrs. Grace
Houston, Lizzie
Howard, Miss Eliza Muir
Israel, Edward Everett
Kimberlin, William Harrison
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Laws, M. D., Leonard Bird
Lodge, Miss Susan C.
Lutes, Lottie
Mare, Eleanor
Markham, Mrs. V. E.
McCarthy, Mrs. Sadie J.
Milton, Mrs. Sue V.
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Palmer, Nathaniel L.
Potter, Henry G.
Price, Mrs. E. O.
Puckett, Lizzie
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Richards, William Alfred
Scammell, Helen S.
Starke, Miss Anna P.
Swan, Mrs. Emma
Travers, Mrs. Virginia M.
Watson, Esther Conger
Webster, Arthur
Webster, Mrs. Cornelia M.
Wheat, Jos. J.
Wright, Mrs. Anna Keill

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Kleinschmidt, Lily
Mills, Mrs. Jennie Forrest
Trippett, Anna Smyth Kennedy

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Bailey, Clyde A.
Bailey, Mrs. J. D.
Baker, Mrs. A. D.
Barrager, Mrs. C. R.
Berlin, Sven
Bickford, John T.
Brown, Mrs. Emily A.
Brugger, Melchior
Byrne, Anna
Calkins, Laura Vincent
Burnham, Edward Stuart
Calvert, Mrs. Eva C.
Chapman, Mrs. Ella E.
Chilcote, Mrs. Sadie
Church, Carrie Persis
Clark, Carrie
Cobbey, Mrs. Lottie W.
Condit, Miss Ella A.
Cooper, Louisa J.
Cory, Mrs. S. T.
Crowell, Mrs. Mary
Davis, Mrs. A. M.
Dean, Miss Carrie
Dearborn, Louisa C.
Drake, Mrs. D. T.
Duncan, Maggie
Ellwood, Miss Lydia
Garten, Mrs. M. H.
Glade, Mamie E. Patton
Goodell, Harriet J.
Goodell, Mrs. Jennie Wilmina
Hahn, Anna A.
Hall, Clara Lillian
Harvey, Amelia C.
Hickox, Mrs. Frances J.
Johnson, Mrs. Isaac
Kempel, James Finley
Kerns, Rev. John
Leavitt, Lura E.
Lyon, Emma Jane
Mac Murphy, Harriet S.
Marley, Mrs. Mary E.
McDowell, Gertrude M.
McKenney, Alva S.
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Morris, William H.
Morris, Mrs. Emma E.
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Newkirk, Miss Jennie C.
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Patrick, Mrs. Clara V.
Patton, Sarah C.

Randall, Lottie A. M.
Reeves, Kate K.
Richie, William Marshall
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Root, Mrs. Susie
Ryatt, Mrs. Eliza Robinson
Sewell, Mrs. Florence A.
Smith, J. A.
Snyder, W. A.
Stevens, Mary Matilda
Stevens, Theodore Charles
Thomas, Clara
Thomas, Lillie
Tidball, Emma Spaulding
Tisdell, Mrs. A. B.
Van Fleet, Mrs. Eva M.
Welch, Candace Elizabeth
White, Charles E.
White, Mary Bewick
Zook, David B.

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Campton, Mrs. A. D.
Crawford, Frances J.
Davis, Mrs. George T.
Lee, Lola W.
Rand, Mrs. J. H.

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Abbott, Lizzie R.
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Atwood, Minnie Edwards
Ball, Mrs. Sarah Ann
Bartlett, Emma May
Bartlett, William Charles
Batchelder, Clara L.
Belding, Nellie M.
Belding, William C.
Berry, Miss Ella F.
Blood, Parker
Bowles, Lizzie M.
Brown, Clara N.
Burnham, Mary Abbie
Buzzell, Caroline E.
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Carleton, William F.
Carter, Nellie M.
Cass, Arthur T.
Caverly, Elizabeth Clark
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Dodge, Viola R.
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Downes, George Wentworth
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Forrest, Miss Honoria A.
Forrest, Miss M. Josa
French, Mrs. J. H.
Furber, Grace Alma
Gillis, Mrs. John F.
Goodale, David Wilder
Goodale, Mary Lydia
Greeley, Miss Florence M.
Hammond, Mamie A.
Hammond, Mrs. Mary A.
Hargreaves, Charles L.
Harvey, Sophronia C.
Hersey, Miss Ella M.
Hildreth, Miss Bertha
Holmes, Ernest
Holmes, Mrs. Kate A.
Hood, Miss Helen E.
Howe, Ada M. R.
Ingraham, Erminia M.
Junkins, Lizzie J. H.
Kenison, Mary F.
Knight, Miss Georgetown W.
Ladd, Virginia Berenice
Mack, Wallace Preston
Marcelline, Mrs. Annie M. L.
Merrifield, Miss Flora L.
Merrifield, Mrs. J. H.
Moore, Carrie Estelle
Moore, Clara Eleanor
Nichols, Miss Ella J.
Noyes, Sarah M.
Pearson, Millie R.
Perkins, Miss Clara M.
Rawson, Miss Effie L.
Raymond, Marietta A.
Ricker, Miss Lydia Emily C.
Robinson, Mrs. Sophia E.
Rollins, John C.
Saltmarsh, Emma
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Small, Lizzie B.
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Pandel, Matilda
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Peck, Kittie Becker
Peck, Philip H.
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Zimmerman, Ezekiel B.
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Stowell, Elizabeth B. T.
Thompson, Alexander R.
Waters, Eva M.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Abrahams, Mary R.
Aikman, Mrs. Laura Barton
Aiken, Isabella M.
Alcorn, Sylvia I.
Allison, Mary M.
Alsoaguh, Vinnie Cribbs
Anderson, Lizzie Shelby
Archer, Ida Ellen
Ashton, Joseph Maxwell
Asper, Jesse B.
Austin, Miss Lizzie
Avery, Mrs. A. L.
Backer, E. R.
Baer, Mrs. Sarah Emma
Baker, Mrs. Sarah J.
Baker, Mrs. W. A.
Baker, Rev. William A.
Barnes, Grace P.
Barr, Mrs. Cordelia E.
Barron, Joseph C.
Bassett, Christiana Blakeney
Beatty, R. Walter
Bechtel, Abram L.
Beebe, Della J.
Bell, Samuel M.
Bentley, Mary M.
Bishop, Eliza Ann
Black, Margaret C.
Black, Mrs. Ray
Blackian, Elizabeth Chapman
Blackman, Emily Clarissa

Blessing, David S.
Bones, A. Nettie
Bowell, Charles Martin
Bowden, Margaret E.
Bowman, Mrs. Caleb
Bowman, Miss Edith G.
Brady, Lucy M.
Braunfield, William
Breining, Louisa
Bricker, Mrs. Elise M.
Briggs, M. Anna
Brownawell, Miss Nannie
Brownlee, Jessie Ashton
Buckson, Ella Jacobs
Buckson, Martha Holland
Campbell, Mary Watts
Carlisle, M. Louise
Carr, Mary B. M.
Cook, Rev. John D.
Cook, Melissa B.
Cook, Rev. Oscar R.
Coover, Mrs. Elizabeth
Corey, Martha A.
Coughenour, Harry S.
Cox, Kate Lorene
Crawford, Miss Caroline R.
Crawford, Mrs. F. S.
Crever, Rev. Benj. H.
Crissman, Miss Laura
Crissman, Minnie
Culin, Mary R.
Cuttan, Zennie Adams
Darragh, Fannie J.
Davis, Mrs. Mary K.
Deal, Emma
Deavor, William T. Sherman
Denney, Mary A.
Dewey, James A.
Drake, Eleanor W.
Dunning, Rev. Charles T.
Eberly, Annie E.
Emerson, Oscar A.
Eshleman, John B.
Espey, Mrs. Mary E.
Espey, S. A.
Evans, Annie
Everts, Agnes B.
Ewing, Annie L.
Ewing, Mary T.
Fairlee, Sue C.
Faulkner, Mrs. J. A.
Firman, Mrs. Sallie C.
Fitzgerald, Samuel Gray
Flemming, Dora A.
Flick, Miss Jessie
Forsee, Margaret P.
Forrester, Joseph H.
Fowler, Jennie S.
Fowler, Z. T.
Freder, Ida M.
Freely, Mrs. J. W.
French, S. H.
Frye, Anna Frazer
Funk, Margaret A.
Gallager, Sadie McCune
Gaus, Lucy C.
Garman, Nellie Carver
Gibson, Isabel B.
Gilbert, George W.
Gilbert, M. Jennie
Glenn, Ada J.
Glenn, Theresa Elma
Goentner, Mannie E.
Good, Albert Parke
Good, Sallie L. Meloy
Graham, Miss Eva M.
Graham, Nellie D.
Griffith, Mrs. Maria York
Groves, Mrs. Anna F.
Haas, Mrs. John B.
Hall, Sr., John W.
Hall, Mrs. J. W.
Hamilton, Eva
Hammers, Aubrey M.
Hammett, Wilbur F.
Hannum, Lillie
Harley, Lillie M.
Hart, Emeline L.
Hauck, Mrs. George W.
Hawker, Frank W.
Heard, Lillian Ellada
Heckert, Miss Emily Davis
Heckert, Miss Lucy Isabella
Hickey, Julia
Hill, Mrs. J. H.
Hill, John Harvey
Hoffman, Mrs. Sallie
Hornung, John
Horrell, Gertrude
Horrell, Mrs. Mary Jane
Horton, Arthur D.
Howard, Miss Mary A.
Howe, Charlotte E.
Humes, Mrs. Jennie S.
Hursk, Laura Minnie
Hutton, Mrs. John M.
Hutton, Miss Sue B.
Hyatt, Mrs. Theodore
Irvin, Mrs. C. M.
Jack, Mrs. Margaret F.
Jack, Summers M.
Johnson, Alice L.
Johnston, Mrs. Letitia P.
Jones, Gertrude
Jones, Joie M.
Joseph, John B.
Kantner, Mrs. W. C.

Keenen, Mrs. Annie E.
Keim, Miss Millie C.
Kelker, M.
Kellogg, Adelaide F.
Kider, Lorenzo
Kirkendall, Eulalie Devillevo
Kistler, Emma L. A.
Kline, Alfred S.
Kneeland, D. D., Martin D.
Knowles, Sarah E.
Knowles, Thomas C.
Kountz, Miss Mary A.
Kulp, Mrs. Mary Elizabeth
Laciar, S. Cordelia
Lackey, Miss Sallie P.
Landis, Bess
Landis, Hettie A.
Lang, Christina
Lathrop, Florence M.
Laughlin, S. Lizzie
Lawshe, Eleanor Metzgar
Leggett, Mrs. Sarah J. S.
Lehman, Elizabeth T.
Lepley, Mrs. W. A.
Lewis, Alice Jane
Lewis, Arlene Maria
Lewis, Miss L. Frank
Lippincott, Mrs. Charles D.
Llewellyn, Mrs. William
Longsdorf, Mrs. Wilhelmina
Loomis, Augusta T.
Low, Mrs. Rebecca J.
Main, Mrs. Barbara
Major, Annie Lawrence
Marshall, Inez R.
Mathews, Miss E. Ennie W.
Mathews, Mrs. Fred C.
Mathews, Letitia
Mathews, Mrs. George S.
Martin, Miss Annie Lydia
Mathews, Miss Hannah M.
McAlpine, Miss Mary
McBride, Elizabeth
McBurney, Carrie
McCall, Mary Jane
McClure, Anna L.
McCurdy, Annie
McCurdy, Emma P.
McCurdy, Maggie E.
McFadden, Augusta
McKee, Mrs. Anne Maria
McKee, Clara
McKeehan, Cora McClure
McLaughlin, Robert J.
McNaughton, Mrs. William
McNeal, Kate C.
Mead, H. Ella
Meese, Mrs. Anna Sayford
Mcgary, Miss Anna J.
Mehaffey, Eleanor B.
Mehaffey, Jennie E.
Mehaffey, Lizzie M.
Melick, Ida
Meloy, Anna Martha
Meloy, Eliza Esther
Messner, Will F.
Miller, Mrs. Sarah B. B.
Mitchell, Alexander
Mitchell, E. Lillian
Monks, Frederick Coston
Morgan, Miss Blanche
Morgan, Kate
Morgan, Miss Lillian B.
Mossop, Miss Alice
Mulheim, Emma Louise Clara
Mullin, Chas. E.
Myers, Amos Z.
Neal, Anna Elizabeth
Nevin, Emma Lucile
Noble, Mrs. W. G.
Northup, Alice C.
Northup, Emma Gertrude
Oldt, J. Calvin
Olmsted, Marion Tappen
Olney, Mary Adelaide
Oplinger, Mary E.
Orr, Mrs. Priscilla
Overholser, James Galt
Overholser, Oliver P.
Overton, Frances Jane
Paine, Sallie A.
Palen, G. Walter
Paschall, Emily C.
Paschall, Joseph H.
Patterson, J. E.
Patterson, Mrs. Julia F.
Patterson, Harley D.
Paxson, Lizzie T.
Peebles, Frances L.
Permar, Mrs. Adeline Hill
Pickering, Emily
Pickering, John A.
Pond, Miss Annie F.
Pond, Mrs. Maria A.
Poole, Jennie H.
Pott, Annie E.
Potter, Mrs. Sarah A.
Powell, Elizabeth
Powell, Miss Jennie C.
Powers, Alice Cummings
Preston, Lottie M.
Puckey, Emily H.
Rand, George M.
Rash, David S.
Read, Fanny L.
Reams, Lillie
Reed, David A.

Reno, Minerva A.
 Reseigne, Mrs. Angeline M.
 Richardson, Mrs. Lillie V. C.
 Richardson, Sarah J.
 Richey, Elizabeth D.
 Richey, Miss Louisa B.
 Rinkenbach, Mrs. Ed. L.
 Rishel, Mary J.
 Ritter, Mary J.
 Ritter, Samuel M.
 Robins, Mrs. Sallie Overton
 Robinson, Mrs. W. J.
 Rogers, Mary J.
 Ross, Mrs. Ira
 Ross, Lizzie
 Russell, Mrs. Estella Brown
 Russell, Miss Lottie E.
 Rubin, Hannah
 Rudell, Miss Annie E.
 Sample, Miss Virginia F.
 Scheetz, Alma Davis
 Scott, Miss Alice A.
 Searies, Mrs. M. Irene
 Seemann, Joo. H.
 Seiple, Mrs. Sophia R.
 Seiple, W. G. M.
 Seymour, Mrs. Lucretia R.
 Shaply, Miss Laura E.
 Shaply, Miss Lydia J.
 Sharpless, May L.
 Shaw, Mrs. Margaret J.
 Shaw, Nannie M.
 Shay, Mrs. M. Alice
 Sheen, Mrs. Sarah A.
 Shelmire, Chas. W.
 Sipler, J. Wesley
 Slaughter, Hannah
 Slonaker, Marnetta
 Slotter, William H.
 Smith, Miss Alice M.
 Smith, Mrs. Eliza C.
 Smith, Fannie M.
 Smith, Mamie M.
 Smith, Miss Margaret R.
 Smith, Maria L.
 Smith, Mrs. Samuel P.
 Snow, Mrs. Mary S.
 Snyder, Lillie D.
 Snyder, Walter H.
 Sour, L. Myrtle
 Sour, M. Emma
 Southworth, Ellen S.
 Spearman, Miss Eva
 Spencer, Mrs. H. L.
 Squier, Mrs. G. J.
 Stephens, Olive P.
 Sterrett, Mrs. S. E.
 Stevens, C. M.
 Stewart, James M.
 Stewart, Lizzie
 Stewart, Mrs. William Wright
 Stewart, Wilson L.
 Stillman, Thomas Cromly
 Stock, Jacob C.
 Stockman, Anna Esther
 Storer, Ella Virginia
 Storer, Lizzie
 Stratton, Mrs. J. L.
 Stratton, A. M., Rev. J. L.
 Sturdevant, Elizabeth M.
 Sturgeon, Miss Minnie E.
 Sutton, Mrs. Ella H.
 Sutton, Thos.
 Swartz, Miss Anna Frances
 Taylor, Lizzie D.
 Taylor, M. Lizzie
 Taylor, Wm. M.
 Themann, Emma D.
 Thomas, Anna Agnes
 Thomas, Mrs. Harriet
 Tiffany, Bela B.
 Tiffany, Mrs. Josephine M.
 Tinstman, L. S.
 Tinstman, Mrs. L. S.
 Townsend, Rev. Edward
 Towns, Benjamin J.
 True, Miss Effie L.
 Trump, Clara S.
 Tustin, Margaret P.
 Tuthill, Mary
 Ulp, Gertrude T.
 Upham, Anna Janeway
 Vanard, Miss Eva V.
 Van Sant, Maggie H.
 Walton, Miss Ray H.
 Warden, Alice E.
 Warden, Lizzie M.
 Warden, Martha
 Watson, Miss Elsie Anna
 Watson, Miss Isadora
 Watson, Tillie J.
 Wells, Annette C.
 Weston, Miss Carrie E.
 Wetzel, Miss Lydia B.
 Whalon, Sarah M.
 Wick, Effie J.
 Wiggins, Coulter
 Williams, Ella
 Wilson, Ida V.
 Womer, Mrs. Agnes L. Beatty
 Wood, Charles Sturgis
 Wright, Miss L. Ellen
 Young, Mrs. Susan V.

RHODE ISLAND.
 Angell, Mrs. L. L.

Appleby, Addison H.
 Avery, Mrs. Marcia E.
 Babcock, Martha J.
 Bailey, Henry C.
 Bailou, Mrs. H. L.
 Banning, Harriette E.
 Bennett, Hannah Johnson
 Blinkhorn, Miss Bessie M.
 Branch, Nellie
 Brayton, Miss Henrietta M.
 Bromley, Mrs. Edwin
 Bromley, Wayland Edwin
 Brown, Emma L.
 Brown, Sarah B.
 Bullock, L. F.
 Burdick, Harriet E.
 Callahan, James
 Card, Susan Angeline
 Carr, Alice Ward
 Church, Mrs. Hattie F.
 Clarke, Mrs. Clara B.
 Clawson, A. L. C.
 Cole, John H.
 Cranall, Mrs. S. G. A.
 Dane, Herbert C.
 Davis, Miss Hettie
 Davison, Mrs. Susan E.
 Douglas, Agnes H. I.
 Downing, Harriette Simmons
 Dyer, Lillian B.
 Eaton, William Sherman
 Edwards, Mrs. Martha
 Ellis, Mary Howe
 Fife, Annie Leora
 Gage, Miss Ellen Isadore
 Gardner, Lizzie King
 Gifford, Elizabeth Austin
 Gillies, Thomas
 Grove, David
 Haskell, Mrs. Alice E.
 Holden, Miss Anna F.
 Huxford, Miss Henrietta C.
 Ide, Althea Tiffany
 Ide, Annie Lucina
 Jordan, Rev. D. A.
 Jordan, Louise R.
 Kelly, John Franklin
 King, Mrs. Georgiana A.
 Langworthy, Della E.
 Law, Clara M.
 Learned, Lealie Elias
 Lee, Oscar F.
 Leonard, Charles Troman
 Lillibridge, Amey A.
 Livesey, Mrs. L. Amelia
 Luther, Harriet E.
 Macomber, Anna B.
 Manchester, Anna B.
 Marchant, Sarah P.
 Mason, Ambrose E.
 Mason, Elizabeth Wilbur
 Mason, Martha Evelyn
 McLeod, Belle
 Metcalf, Alice M.
 Metcalf, Ellen Houghton
 Metcalf, Franklin
 Money, Salomy C.
 Moody, Miss Maria Tenney
 Newton, Annie L.
 Nichols, Alzada Evelyn
 Nichols, Mary Melissa
 Nye, M. Hattie
 Olney, Clara A.
 Olney, James H.
 Pearce, Eliza J.
 Peckham, Mrs. Matilda T.
 Phillips, Miss Abbie M.
 Reading, Belle M.
 Reoch, Robert
 Reynolds, Harriet C.
 Rice, Mrs. Ella F.
 Richmond, Marietta A.
 Rogers, Orson C.
 Sawtelle, Lucinda B.
 Searle, Hannah F.
 Sheldon, Lenora D.
 Sison, Albert A.
 Smith, Eva H.
 Starr, Mattie L.
 Stone, Mrs. Almira M.
 Swift, Emmet Tanner
 Tanner, Lillian Howland
 Tew, Marietta Willard
 Thurston, Chas. Rawson
 Topfiff, Mrs. Fannie E.
 Tripp, Mrs. Sarah Francis
 Trotter, Eleanor Sarah
 Trotter, Mary
 Vaughn, Mrs. Lydia F.
 Walker, Mrs. Mary F.
 Weeden, Lillie B.
 Weeden, Lucy A.
 Whitman, B. Anella
 Williams, Miss Amelia

SOUTH CAROLINA.
 Baker, Emma P.
 Clinton, George Wylie
 Graeser, Mrs. Maggie A.

TENNESSEE.
 Dempsey, Mrs. Margaret E.
 Dodge, Emma Florice
 Hilliard, Charles Dudley
 Lewis, Anna Carrie
 Stephens, John Vant
 Wall, Robert L.

TEXAS.
 Achenbach, Will Grant
 Blackwell, Miss Zorah H.
 Burns, Azula M.
 Chapin, Eva J.
 Dorrance, Ada K.
 Finney, Miss Maria L.
 Hall, Fannie Louise
 Jackson, George W.
 Lide, Mrs. Fannie Alexander
 Nicholson, Miss Rozelle
 Parker, Miss Bettie
 Rogan, Mrs. F. V.
 Simpson, Mrs. Thos. M.
 Spaulding, Cora C.
 Williams, Miss Jessie
 Wright, Mrs. J. B.

UTAH.
 Gillilan, Alice Wiseman
 Gillilan, James David
 Haines, Miss Sarah Frances
 Hollister, Mrs. Carrie M.

VERMONT.
 Arnold, Kate S. W.
 Bacon, Mrs. Oliver D.
 Barclay, Helen M.
 Barrows, Nellie Phinney
 Boright, Mrs. Rachel R.
 Brigham, Mrs. Jane F.
 Brigham, Mary F.
 Chalker, Miss Charlotte
 Chamberlin, Miss Bertha E.
 Clark, Mrs. H. L.
 Clark, Mrs. L. Emma
 Coburn, Miss Laura Belle
 Cross, Augusta Narona
 Cutler, Lucella B.
 Doe, Mrs. Effie A. W.
 Dole, Flora M.
 Donaldson, Rev. Sylvester
 Edwards, Nellie Louise
 Farwell, Annette Wing
 Fisk, Amy B.
 Gale, Laura
 Grismer, Charles Valentine
 Hamblin, Mrs. Florence
 Hancock, Alice M.
 Jones, Charles Wesley
 Johnson, Bessie
 Kimball, Miriam L.
 Kneer, Mrs. Alice Jane
 Laird, Gertrude S. Jones
 Lawrence, Cedelia S.
 Lawrence, Julia S.
 Loveland, Annie Vinal
 Merrill, Mrs. Mary E. H.
 Morse, Mrs. Lorinda T.
 Moulton, Lucy Barrows
 Nelson, Laura
 Nichols, Sarah A.
 Nutt, Mary Lucinda
 Parker, Kirah A.
 Parker, Mary A.
 Parker, Sylvester A.
 Pesse, Mrs. Horace C.
 Peck, Mrs. Ada N.
 Perrier, Lillian New
 Perkins, Mrs. Clara McIndoe
 Perkins, Effie A.
 Pinney, John H.
 Powell, Mrs. Laura C.
 Powers, Miss Laura A.
 Prichard, Mrs. Orissa J.
 Rand, Mrs. Esther A.
 Ranney, Jennie E.
 Root, Gertrude E.
 Rosier, Miss Eva
 Rust, Mrs. Henry
 Sheburne, Josephine Gill
 Simonds, Miss Maria R.
 Spear, Alice L.
 Stanton, Wm. Jervais
 Steward, Sarah Ferts
 Stocker, Miss Hattie N.
 Tarr, Gertrude Davis
 Tarr, Leonard Merrill
 Thurber, Miss Maria L.
 Tillison, Isadore D.
 Warren, Miss Elsie
 Warren, Mrs. Elvira
 Watman, Darwin Samuel
 Waterman, Mrs. Nora L.
 Watson, Mrs. Sarah A.
 Weeks, Sadie M.
 Widmer, Frederick
 Wiley, Nellie L.
 Wilson, Luetha M.
 Wilson, Mary B.
 Wylie, Nellie J.

VIRGINIA.
 Abell, Mrs. Clara L.
 Barnett, Maud Conway
 Bland, Miss Martha Oliver
 Epes, Henry S.
 Miller, Mrs. Mattie F.
 Norton, Mrs. Lillie Hope.

WASHINGTON.
 Abrams, Mrs. E. Alice
 Abrams, Mrs. Mary H.
 Denison, Jennie H.
 Denison, John Nathan
 Denny, Miss Sarah L.

Foster, Minta
 Guey, Mrs. E. W.
 Latimer, Narcissa Leonora
 Longmire, Low Jackson
 Mackintosh, Mrs. A.
 Morrill, Mrs. Hattie
 Pierce, David Jonathan
 Reeves, Lucy Baldwin
 Reeves, William Henry
 Seagrave, Mrs. A. A.
 Strong, Amanda Anderson
 Strong, Daniel Gates
 Wood, Mrs. Minnie S. B.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Adair, R. H.
 Adair, Mrs. R. H.
 Chorpene, Rosa Althea
 Cunningham, Mrs. D. A.
 Dittman, Martha C.
 Flinn, E. H.
 Forman, Delphia R.
 Kelley, Alice A.
 Kendall, Maud E.
 Peters, Rev. L. E.
 Siler, Flora B.
 Taylor, Miss Ida M.

WISCONSIN.

Alport, Mrs. J. E.
 Anderson, Mrs. Mary F.
 Andree, Ada F.
 Axtell, Charlotte
 Ball, Sue L.
 Bailey, Mrs. Annie H.
 Bailey, Mrs. Libbie A. W.
 Barker, Mrs. Olin D.
 Bartlett, Lillie P.
 Benedict, Amanda
 Bo-worth, Mrs. R. W.
 Bradford, Allie M.
 Brandel, Millie E.
 Briggs, Perry R.
 Bronson, Mrs. Sarah J.
 Brown, Melissa
 Buell, Callie T.
 Burdick, Maggie L.
 Bush, Ella
 Campbell, Miss Anna M.
 Campbell, Rev. James M.
 Campbell, Jr., John
 Clark, Lizzie A.
 Conlisk, Mrs. Chas.
 Cotting, Eliza
 Davies, Mrs. Martha E.
 Dean, Jesse A.
 Du Four, Mrs. Carrie Eugenia
 Du Four, John Wesley
 Ela, Mrs. Laura T.
 Elden, Mrs. M. A.
 Flanders, Mrs. Ann Elizabeth
 Flanders, Catharine A.
 Ford, James
 Gates, Mabel Bernice
 Gates, Marietta J.
 Godfrey, Mrs. Mary A.
 Gray, Miss Marion W.
 Griffin, Mrs. Emma
 Grimmer, Myra D.
 Hansen, Andreas Skands
 Harney, Orissa M.
 Hill, Mary
 Howe, Mrs. C. E.
 Hoxie, Wilbur T.
 Johnson, Samuel Curtis
 Landon, Mrs. Matilda H.
 Lockwood, Mary Waters
 Manson, Jessie I.
 Marsh, Mrs. Osborne
 Marshall, Mrs. Martha A.
 Marshall, Miss M. Florence
 Millard, Margaret J.
 Morse, Miss Della
 Munroe, Isabel A.
 Neperud, Gillert H.
 Nicholson, Dexter P.
 Nightingale, Frank M.
 Nye, Mrs. Geo. W.
 Patterson, Amelia Almira
 Perkins, Minnie S.
 Petrie, Miss Jessie A.
 Petrie, Miss S. Agnes
 Pierce, Miss Nellie M.
 Pierce, Mrs. Sara
 Piele, Mrs. Minnie L.
 Randolph, Miss Emma E.
 Read, Allie Aeneath
 Rice, Edward S.
 Rogers, Mrs. Martha E.
 Rosenblatt, Mrs. H.
 Ryan, Emma E.
 Ryan, Maggie
 Ryan, Thomas Curran
 Sage, Almida G.
 Schlegelmich, Louise A. E.
 Seefeld, Mrs. Frances A.
 Slight, Annie Helena
 Smith, Adelaide
 Smith, Jessie M.
 Smith, Lincoln B.
 Smith, Mrs. Mary C.
 Snel, Leila C.
 Snel, Mattie Lillian
 Spear, Miss Mabel M.
 Spooner, Mrs. Kittie H.
 Stalker, M. D., H. J.

Stewart, Ellen E.
 Tennant, Mrs. Isa H.
 Tichenor, Mrs. Helen E.
 Trever, Mrs. Ada S.
 Tuttle, Ella S.
 Walker, Alice May
 Ward, Mrs. C. H.
 Watson, Mrs. Josephine M.
 Wells, Florence Emily
 White, Rev. Geo. W.
 Williams, Minnie L.

WYOMING.
 Walker, Miss Jennie

CANADA.

Adams, D. D., S. L., D. S., John F.
 Anning, Edith A.
 Barker, Helen L.
 Beckwith, Edward M.
 Bennett, Emily C.
 Bennett, May E.
 Birchard, Mrs. Bertha
 Bird, Annie
 Brown, Miss Annie M.
 Brown, Minnie
 Bulkley, Albert H.
 Camp, Mary C.
 Campbell, Attilia E.
 Campbell, Emma H.
 Campbell, Robert Pettingrew
 Cann, Augusta L.
 Clark, Mrs. Sarah A.
 Collier, Susan Emma
 Copp, William
 Coulter, Isabella
 Crowell, Mrs. S. A.
 Cushing, Mrs. J. E.
 Downey, Lydia St. John
 Dunlop, Maud E.
 Edmonds, Mrs. Ida E.
 Eyre, Mary Francis W.
 Faircloth, J. M.
 Faircloth, Mary Fletcher
 Farmer, Cara
 Foster, Annie J.
 Fralick, Clarissa W.
 Fralick, Nettie M.
 Fraser, Katie B.
 Freeman, Florence A.
 Freeman, Matilda G.
 Fudger, Harris Henry
 Gale, Miss Jennie
 Gililand, Annie Isabella
 Gilmour, Arthur B.
 Gross, Lucetta J.
 Hall, M. Isabel
 Hamilton, Caroline Magee
 Hastings, David
 Henderson, Miss Fannie E.
 Henderson, Miss Kate L.
 Hunter, James Macfie
 Hunter, Sarah J.
 Husband, Edgar Munro
 Jaffray, Annie E.
 Johns, Lizza
 Johnson, Henry D.
 Johnson, Ida Virginia
 Junkin, Susan J.
 King, Emma F.
 King, Jennie
 King, Katrina
 Koyler, Ena Florence
 Lake, Emily Jane
 Lake, John Neilson
 May, Mary T.
 McClive, Mrs. Mary E.
 Middlemis, Mary
 Norman, Daniel
 Norman, Priscilla
 Oliver, Joseph
 Pearson, Mrs. E. J.
 Pember, Mrs. Eliza G.
 Richardson, Mary J.
 Richardson, Annie Dodge
 Robinson, Miss Ettie
 Robinson, Miss Hannah M.
 Shaver, Miss Annie
 Shaver, Miss H. M.
 Sheffield, Mrs. Mary, Telfer
 Sherwood, Chas
 Shortreed, Mary
 Sloan, Mary Agnes
 Smith, James Willard
 Smith, Miss Susie
 Sutherland, Evelyn
 Sutherland, Nettie
 Switzer, Miss Ada M.
 Syngrin, Julia A.
 Tackaberry, Richard Jones
 Tilley, M. A., Ph. D., W. E.
 Tilley, Mrs. W. E.
 Tourjee, Lydia A.
 Tutt, Hannah E.
 Watson, Mrs. Johanna M.

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.
 Waterhouse, Elizabeth B.

DIED SINCE GRADUATION.

Burcl field, Mary M., Pa.
 Creeker, Orpha E., N. Y.
 Dexter, Mrs. Clara E., Me.
 Fawcett, Jennie B., Ohio.
 Faulender, Sarah, Ohio.
 Robinson, Libbie, Ohio.
 Shrader, Addie E., Ohio.